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OUR CONTRIBUTIONS TO OVERCOMING TEACHER SHORTAGES

The present situation The shortage of teachers is so generally accepted that to discuss it seems trite. The situation is bad and is well on its way to becoming worse. The sad facts are well summarized in the Seventh Annual National Teachers Supply and Demand Study prepared by the National Education Association. In it Ray Maul indicates that the shortage has now reached the secondary schools. States he:

The 1954 report clearly shows that the high schools are at the threshold of an entirely changed situation, which itself has five meaningful facets. *First*, the total number of boys and girls of high-school age is beginning to expand; just the vanguard of that extra five million now in the elementary schools is beginning to push into the junior high school grades. *Second*, there is already a marked drop in the number of degree graduates to emerge from the colleges, year by year, with the required preparation to enter high-school teaching. *Third*, there is an alarming per cent

of these potential high-school teachers who do not even enter candidacy for teaching positions. The requirements of military service and the attractions of other occupations have depleted the ranks of this group coming from the colleges far beyond the awareness of many leaders in education. *Fourth*, as the potential supply of new high-school teachers comes down to and falls below actual demand, the excess supply of former years will no longer be available for "conversion" into elementary-school teachers, thus further aggravating that shortage. *Fifth*, since it is known that the present Junior and Sophomore college classes are smaller than the preceding classes, it follows that 1955 and 1956 will see even fewer qualified high-school teaching candidates coming from the degree graduating classes of those years. Meanwhile, of course, the high-school enrolment will have grown by substantial numbers.

Surely the time is at hand to review our preparations to meet these new conditions.

An additional factor There might be added to the preceding gloomy outlook from the standpoint of teacher shortage the further fact that the holding power over sec-

ondary-school pupils is increasing. Educationally and socially this is highly desirable; yet it creates a situation which calls for more, not fewer, teachers. This is pointed out in "High School Retention by States" by Walter H. Gaumnitz (United States Office of Education Circular No. 398, 1954). The Foreword by Wayne O. Reed and Galen Jones states the situation clearly:

The extent to which the secondary schools are reaching and serving all youth of high-school age has been in recent years a problem of major concern to our educational leaders. While equality of educational opportunity for every youth, including those of high-school age, has long been the ideal toward which all states have been aiming, many of them have been shocked to find their schools falling far short of this goal. As a result of more attention given to this problem, the leaders are increasingly finding out (1) how many youth are dropping out and at what ages, (2) what the major reasons are for leaving school early, and (3) what changes high schools must make in programs and practices in order to serve youth better and retain them longer.

There is much evidence to show that the increased emphasis upon serving *all* youth is paying off in increased retention. Even as recently as 1945 only 46.7 per cent of those who had entered the ninth grade four years earlier remained to graduate. By 1951, however, the number graduating had increased by almost 16 per 100, and estimates indicate that since that date there has been a further increase of 7 pupils per 100. This suggests that in about a decade the number of pupils retained through high-school graduation has increased by nearly one-fourth.¹

In many states the increases have been much greater than for the nation as a whole. What these increases will mean in additional staff and facilities needed can be determined

with some definiteness. What they will mean in new and better programs is also fairly clear. But what they will mean in the lives of the individual boys and girls affected can scarcely be imagined. One thing is certain—the problems relating to pupil retention, holding power, and follow-up of drop-outs need to be studied more intensely than ever before. It is hoped that this report will contribute something to that end.

Responsibility of the profession The campaign of the past ten years to solicit recruits for teaching has not been particularly effective in obtaining more qualified persons for teacher training. Several reasons have been advanced for this lack of interest upon the part of promising young people in entering our profession. Poor pay has been very generally commented upon. Loss of social and intellectual freedom is suspected. Being poor, teachers are supposed to be leftists. Francis C. Pray, in "A New Focus in Public Relations for Teachers and Teacher Education" appearing in the July, 1954 issue of the *Educational Record*, after indicating that education "has brought these things upon itself," writes:

It is not enough to blame low salaries, unsatisfactory working conditions, poor retirement prospects, or the general "climate of the times," for the creation of these problems. It is necessary to blame these and related conditions upon the low prestige which the public school teacher now enjoys in the minds of the general public.

¹ EDITORIAL NOTE: The increase is from 46.7 per cent to 69.7 per cent—a difference of 23 in the per cents. The per cent increase, however, is 49.3; so that the number of pupils retained has increased by nearly one-half, instead of one-fourth.

Pray suggests as the cure:

We must build a sense of dignity. Parents exercise special judgment in the selection of a baby sitter. They make financial sacrifices to provide the best medical care for their children. We must persuade them that the teacher is dealing with the same precious commodity, which is not less precious merely because it is sitting in a classroom rather than in a doctor's examination chair.

Let's stop talking about low pay. Let's talk, rather, about the duties and contributions of this essential profession. Here the administrators of the schools—the principals and superintendents—must take leadership. Rather than confine their attention primarily to "personnel matters" in the narrow sense of the word, rather than confine their major efforts to interpreting the financial needs of the schools, essential as this service is, rather than talking so much about buildings and athletic fields and extra-curricular activities, they too can contribute by making their major public relations effort that of supporting and interpreting the importance of the teacher in our society. They must feel the conviction that the teacher, not the administrator and/or the school board, is the precious and indispensable ingredient in a successful educational system. They must constantly strive to get this conviction across into public consciousness.

Improving public relations Speaking at the Albany Conference held June 23-26, 1954, William G. Carr, executive secretary of the National Education Association, gave some sound advice in the matter of building better public relations:

Thus far, I have talked mainly of public responsibility in this question of getting good schools and good teachers. There are obligations upon school people also. Among these is the responsibility of refining and modifying present procedures. To get better schools the

teachers themselves should tackle the job of improving several aspects of education.

Foremost among these I would name the necessity of lifting our sights in education. Given the right kind of human material, our teacher-preparing institutions should be content with nothing less than developing broadly educated persons who are thoroughly competent in their field of specialization and who know how to be sympathetic and effective guides to learning for children. Great progress has been made to bring teacher education abreast of the realities of 1954. One of the great tasks facing educators is improving preparation of teachers to the point where its products will be broadly educated, devoted conservators of our culture, equipped with a usable understanding of human growth and development, familiar with principles of learning, resourceful and adept in the skills of teaching. Such programs of preparation should, in themselves, have great influence in increasing the attractiveness . . . of teaching as a career.

There is also an important job in reorganizing our concept of the teacher function and the teacher's job. The minutiae of classroom management have been allowed to so overburden some teachers that their job has become unbearable. Teachers' aides, clerical helpers, modern teaching tools, and various administrative devices can relieve much of the time-consuming labor on the part of persons equipped to perform professional functions. There are dangers here, of course. I do not think that reorganizing the teaching job can put a much greater burden in terms of the number of children on each qualified teacher. It does seem to me that such measures might enable the qualified teacher to deal more effectively and understandingly with each individual student.

Certification problems

There is one aspect of the over-all task of recruitment that is a source of pride and yet of concern to the profession. This re-

lates to certification requirements. The writer has studied the certification of teachers across the years. The profession can point with some satisfaction to the improvement of the handling of certification matters during the past several decades. Studies indicate that the kinds of functionaries authorized to issue teachers' certificates have gradually become fewer as education has progressed in the United States. The concentration of authority moved, in the main, from numerous local officials of towns to county superintendents and then to the state departments of public instruction.

The concern about the certification of teachers is not about the process of handling the certification but about the kinds of academic and professional requirements demanded for obtaining a certificate to teach at the elementary, secondary, and, in certain instances, junior-college levels. This concern was evidenced by Fred O. Pinkham, executive secretary of the National Commission on Accrediting, in the May, 1954, issue of the *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*. The following excerpt is from his article on "The Accrediting Situation in Teacher Education":

There is an historical trend in the professions, as in other branches of society, toward increasing centralization of administration and control, toward systematization of licensing and toward standardization of preparation. It is difficult to discern how much of our nation's progress paralleling the trend has been the cause of, the result of, or in spite of, the trend. Teaching is but the latest major professional group to enter the stream

down which several other groups have already moved. Fifty years ago, 3,000 local authorities were certifying teachers on the basis of local examinations. Seldom were college credits required. Today certifying authority is almost universally centralized in state departments of education, and prescribed college credits have virtually replaced examination as the basis for certification of teachers.

There is an amazing amount of diversity in teacher-certification practices throughout the country. At present, there are approximately 1,000 separately named teacher certificates. One state issues 60 kinds of certificates, another issues only one kind of certificate. Requirements for "comparable" credentials vary from less than one year of college education to more than four years for elementary teachers and from less than three to five or more years' preparation for secondary teachers.

State requirements in so-called professional courses vary from none to 60 units for the "same" certificate. Since requirements by institutions are usually higher than state minimums, the range in prescribed credits is actually more extensive. Thus, one institution requires over 80 hours in professional courses while another recommends applicants for the "same" credential with no professional course work at all.

Vast differences in certification requirements coupled with increased population mobility have led state department of education officials to join the ranks of those who call for greater uniformity in standard and practice.

There are others who adversely criticize teacher-certification requirements because of the emphasis placed upon courses in education at the expense of liberal arts courses. Most of the states are evidently striving to establish a proper balance between the two. There is evidence that state certification authorities are adjusting the

teacher-certification requirements to meet changing needs.

One source, however, of the present confusion about certification requirements is just this state of change. The writer is co-author of an annual digest of certification requirements of the forty-eight states. Comparison of the 1953-54 and 1954-55 editions of this manual revealed the following changes:

Sixteen states, or 33.3 per cent of the 48, made some kind of change in their requirements. Eleven states, or 22.9 per cent of the 48, made both major and minor changes; five states, or 10.4 per cent of the 48, made only minor changes in requirements.

Until each state evolves its requirements to the satisfactory degree that changes from year to year will be slight and until there is rather general agreement among all the states upon the same requirements, education will be in a none too comfortable spot, especially in its dealings with those who are not sympathetic anyhow with the problems faced by the states in certifying their teachers. It is true that certification requirements are in a state of evolution. Every effort should be made to reach stability in these matters, since too many changes at too frequent intervals are not effective in building good public relations for our profession.

CARE OF THE DEVIATES

ACCEPTANCE of the principle of human variation seems to imply that to deal with all students the same, we must deal with them differently. If nature has created them unlike, then,

to be democratic, our practices must vary in order that each is justly and fairly treated. This is fair not only to the individuals, especially to students with marked variations, but to society as a whole. Many schools recognize this situation and have instituted practices intended to serve the specially gifted, the physically handicapped, the slow learners, and the like. Current reports upon these practices are encouraging and provide occasion for pride in our schools and our professional insights.

Superior child in Baltimore The June, 1954, issue of the *Baltimore Bulletin of Education* is devoted to the superior pupil. The

material presented is stimulating to read and provides data of interest to a variety of school functionaries under the captions: "The Superior Child in the Baltimore Public Schools," "Reading for the Superior Student," "The Counselor's Role in Identifying and Guiding the Superior Pupil," "For the Child Superior in Art," "For the Musically Gifted," and "What Vocational Education Offers the Superior Pupil." A statement by Roszel C. Thomsen, president of the Board of School Commissioners, appropriately introduces the issue:

The public schools should give and do give careful consideration to the education of all children. But as we give appropriate attention to the special requirements of various groups, we must recognize the imperative need to maintain suitable programs for the children of superior ability. It is from this group that most of our future leaders will be drawn. Their proper development is impor-

tant, not only to these children and their families, but to all of us.

Several years ago, our Board raised the question whether the provisions we are making for these pupils were as effective as they should be. To investigate this matter and to report upon it to the Board, a special committee was appointed, consisting of Dr. Elizabeth Morrissey, Mr. Walter Sondheim, and Professor J. Trueman Thompson, chairman. Their report, which follows, is encouraging. It gives Baltimore cause for pride in what has been accomplished and in what is being done currently. We find in the report no reason for complacency, however, because the committee points out a number of ways in which further improvement should be made.

We are indebted to the committee and to the many citizens and staff members who assisted them in their work. This report will aid us materially as we continue our efforts to provide for Baltimore a school program of the highest possible quality. And, because of widespread interest in the question, the report may prove of some value to other school systems.

Acceleration Another report that was of the able most encouraging to this student writer appeared in the March issue of the *Newton (Massachusetts) School Age* under the title "Spotlight on the Able Student." This report cites a situation which is quite common and then goes on to report progress in a program not so common yet of considerable interest generally. It is worth reporting here, although space does not permit quotation of the full statement. The plan at Newton High School was one of four Ford Foundation experiments toward the same end.

Most Newtonians are now well aware of Newton's part in the "Kenyon Plan" for

speeding the progress of able high-school students.

How is the plan working out? Midyear of the first year of the program is a good time to make an appraisal.

First, though, what was the problem the Kenyon Plan was designed to solve?

What was happening to gifted students? Any such appraisal must be projected against the intent of schools in a democracy to provide education for all in a climate in which each boy and girl may advance as far as possible toward personal proficiency and potential leadership. Industrial technology was keeping more and more pupils in school; the minimum school-leaving age was upped. The gifted students were being outnumbered, in some danger of losing their identity to the necessity for getting the majority over academic hurdles and off the taxpayer's back.

In large classes, the able students have too often been bored stiff. They have developed careless habits because pressure at the center of the class doesn't compel them to exert much energy to "succeed." Some were likely, too often, to waste time, even though they were well taught. Unless, as was often and fortunately the case, their own initiative and some inspiration from some teacher resulted in their rising above the group level. . . .

How about the pupils themselves? And first, who are they? There are 119 enrolments in eight English classes, 91 in four French classes, 66 in three math classes, 48 in two biology classes, and 17 in physics. The boys and girls are personable, well-adjusted, perhaps a little overanxious, the girls particularly, although these students were always concerned to do their level best in school and always a trifle worried lest their best would fall short of perfection. Many of them are the school's leaders; their participation in the school's musical, civic, social, athletic, recreational life is above average.

Do they have to work harder than pupils in "regular" classes? Ah, but they always did. Which accounts in part for their being

selected for this program in the first place. And now they are quite certainly having to work harder than they did in classes in which competition with themselves was less keen. Put it this way: they are having to work more in keeping with their capabilities. This is regarded as healthy for any child in any class at any time. More important is that they are tackling with zest concepts of a higher order of difficulty.

Are they showing signs of fatigue and tension? Not generally. Emotionally they are proving to be more mature than their fellows, better able to accept the challenges to their intelligence and curiosity, less inclined to hunt for excuses for not studying. (Emotional maturity was a basis of selection.)

They are distinguishable from their fellows, if at all, by their attitudes toward learning and possibly by the bigger pile of textbooks they tote around. These earmarks always distinguished the superior student. One of them may think that someone else in the class is "smarter" than he, only to find that the other thinks the same of him. Their perception and their ability to find enjoyment in their work are, if anything, superior to similar qualities in their fellows.

Otherwise you cannot tell them from their fellows. Since most of them are unsegregated in their home rooms, activities, and most classes, they look like what they are: high-school boys and girls.

Have there been no failures? Has everyone made the grade? Practically. Some find the sledding hard. One or two have been placed in "regular" classes for reasons not connected with the plan—the decision, for example, that one field rather than another is to be the field of concentration when the pupil does get to college. In more cases, however, the student feeling hard pressed has chosen nevertheless to remain in the Kenyon class because "it's more fun," because the atmosphere is one of intellectual curiosity, the experience itself exciting. The attitude of "let's find out about this," rather than "why do we have to study this stuff" attracts

them. Some pupils might draw a better grade in a regular class, but they prefer the Kenyon climate.

Is the program flexible enough to move the pupil in or out of Kenyon plan classes if good guidance indicates that it should be done? Yes, indeed, and several such shifts have been made *into* such classes. Fewer will be made from now until June because the gap in material covered has been widening since the first day. One or two overconscientious students have been aided to lighten their programs in the interests of better all-round adjustment of the individual. Perhaps the pupil's intense desire to do well had not been tempered by the realization that he might not be top dog in the group, a role to which he had been accustomed. The criterion for such changes, in either direction, has always been the welfare of the child.

The handi- One of the over-all prob-
capped child lems which faces an administrator in dealing with the deviate pupil, whether the gifted or the handicapped, is to keep the pupil as best he can in the "mainstream," as indicated by the title of the Proceedings of the Tenth Governor's Conference on Exceptional Children (sponsored by the Illinois Commission for Handicapped Children, 160 North La Salle Street, Chicago 1): *The Handicapped Child in the Mainstream*. To keep the deviate in the mainstream, the administrator must fulfil his responsibility of orienting the teachers properly to the total situation. Upon this point the remarks by Ivan K. Garrison, co-ordinator of special education in the public schools of Jacksonville, Illinois, are helpful:

It is true that changes occur in the personnel of school every year. As a part of the new

teacher's orientation, the administrator should see that the program of special services is thoroughly explained. This orientation should not end with scheduled staff meetings at the beginning of the year. If a teacher enters a school system which is attempting to serve exceptional children, and that teacher assumes his responsibilities with the idea that only a very select group of children will be served, something is wrong with the hiring procedure.

When an exceptional child is being "tried" in a regular class, it's the administrator's job to see that the emphasis is on helping the teacher accept the child and on finding materials and methods that are adaptable to this child rather than on helping the teacher exclude the child. . . . Now, as for this statement, "Schools are for normal children," I have only one answer. Schools do not belong to just the children nor to any group of children. Schools belong to the people, and the people are not all normal. In combating this concept, we have to defy tradition. For schools are as they are, not so much because of any particular teachers or administrators, as they are from tradition. We must bring about a school and community understanding whereby all would accept as a matter of course that each child is deserving of equal educational opportunities. The implications are that, of course, every child's educational, vocational, and social needs will be met. Of course, the handicapped child is an integral part of society, the community, and the school.

It is important to remember that as a result of receiving special services the handicapped child is no more obligated to the school agents, or the parent that provided these services, than any other child. The school has no right to expect this child to show any better behavior or any different attitude toward his benefactors, or demonstrate any more appreciation than any of his unlabeled peers.

And finally, I would like to repeat a statement that I made before a group of special

teachers in a workshop session in Kirksville, Missouri. We would hope that integration would be considered a policy and it would be unnecessary to consider it as a "plan." Handicapped individuals can be integrated into any situation to which they can make normal adjustment. We, as educators, must help other educators to understand that a handicapped child learns to make this adequate adjustment by the process of integrating rather than by being integrated. We must help them also to see, understand, and accept the fact that adequate functioning is one of the ways by which normality is clinically defined. Behavior is normal when it represents a straightforward and satisfying adjustment to the outer world. It is abnormal when it represents an attempt to escape from reality, often driven by anxiety, feelings of inferiority, or inadequacy. By thinking of integration as a policy rather than a "plan" we will be allowing the handicapped an opportunity to develop a straightforward, satisfying adjustment by, with, or without help of specialists.

Responsibility of the teacher Closely related to the administrator's responsibility to the deviate child is the question of the teacher's responsibility to this student. The guidance counselor in today's high school is frequently faced with a student body so large in relation to the time which he has available for counseling that meeting the guidance needs of all the students becomes a difficult matter. In such a situation the responsibility for detecting the student's problems, and insofar as possible, helping to solve them, must fall upon the individual teacher. In the May, 1954, issue of the *ATA Magazine*, the official organ of the Alberta Teachers' Association, J. C. Woodsworth and S. C. T. Clarke have the

following to say about the relation of guidance to teaching in their article on "Techniques of Guidance":

Teaching, with its emphasis on curriculum matters, is not separate from the guidance activities which have come to the fore of recent years. Certain aspects of guidance require special training, and this is the reason for guidance specialists in our schools. No teacher, however, can afford to ignore information about child growth and development. Teaching effectiveness is too dependent upon it. Guidance techniques, then, provide the teacher with information or methods of attack which tend to raise her status as a member of a profession.

Once the teacher's responsibility in guidance is accepted, the question arises: "What are the guidance techniques which the teacher may employ?" The same article discusses one such technique which could be used to advantage by all teachers. Each pupil's success in school is in part determined by his intellectual endowment, as measured by the intelligence quotient. The degree of success which the pupil actually achieves is not, however, always commensurate with his native ability. Therefore, by comparing his score on one of the standardized I.Q. tests with his score on a standardized achievement test, some insight into his academic problems may be gained. The student whose academic achievement falls far below his intellectual potential is being hindered in some area and thus is prevented from making the optimum use of his abilities. Conversely, the student who achieves beyond the levels expected from his intellectual strength

is achieving under a strain and should be watched for signs of tension and fatigue. It is by such simple use of materials which most teachers have already available to them that a teacher may increase his effectiveness in helping students with their academic problems.

AND THAT LIFE MAY BE YOUR OWN

THE battle to reduce deaths from automobiles seems, at times, a losing struggle. It is difficult to evaluate the various attempts to reduce accidents and casualties when the general circumstances change owing to the ever increasing use and number of automobiles being driven by a greater per cent of our population.

For quite some time now, our secondary schools have offered courses in driving and in driving safety. How much money and time have been devoted to this effort? How many schools give this type of training? What kind of instructional material is available? These and other questions are answered, in part at least, by some recent publications which should be of general interest to all those concerned with the schooling of adolescents in an industrial society.

Textbook materials A compendious and handsomely designed textbook for courses in driver education is provided in *Let's Drive Right*, written by Maxwell Halsey, executive secretary of the Michigan State Safety Commission, and

published by Scott, Foresman and Company. Some idea of what happens in a driver-education course can be gained from the following excerpt, in which the author explains to a hypothetical student the purpose of the book:

Part One, "You and Other Drivers," is concerned with the personal factors that will affect your driving and that of other motorists. Among these factors are physical condition, emotional attitudes, and your relationship to pedestrians and bicyclists. You will also deal with the happy prospect of planning a trip. But first you will find out how to get a driver's license and how to protect yourself and others in case of accident. You will learn how to avoid accidents yourself and how to prevent other drivers from running into you.

Part Two, "You and Your Car," will help you find out what you need to know about the car in order to keep it in good condition and drive it safely. You will also learn the steps involved in putting the car in motion and operating it successfully.

Part Three, "You and Your Driving," presents actual driving situations and calls upon you to make accurate decisions. Here you will read about and practice the maneuvers necessary in specific traffic situations. And you will learn how to adapt your driving to other traffic, changing weather, and highway conditions.

Part Four, "You and Future Progress," focuses attention on the future. You will consider what can be done to improve the design of streets and highways to handle the steadily increasing amount of traffic, and you will be encouraged to think about how such traffic conditions can be controlled through new legislation. Finally, you will study and discuss ways in which teen-agers themselves can help control accidents in their own age group; for example, through driving clubs and teen-age traffic courts.

Comprehensive report "The Status of Driver Education in Public High Schools, 1952-53"

is the most detailed and comprehensive study in this area yet to be produced. It was published in April, 1954, as Volume XXXII, Number 2, of the *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association* and should be required reading for all those interested in the problem. The study was based on the responses of 9,870 public high schools to a questionnaire which covered the following major topics: general types of programs, typical practices, teachers, equipment, costs, and accidents. The study explores these topics in relation to programs for adults and young people who are no longer in school, as well as programs for pupils who are now attending public school. The last section treats the role in driver education of the state departments of education and further deals with the requirements of the state departments of motor vehicles. The following quotation is taken from the report's summary of its findings:

The general over-all statistics for programs of driver education for high-school students may be summarized as follows:

- 47 per cent of the schools replying offered some kind of driver-education program.
- 82 per cent of these programs included both classroom instruction and practice driving.
- 53 per cent of the programs reported were in high schools in rural areas.
- 35 per cent of the programs reported were in the Middle states.
- 53 per cent of the programs were offered by regular four-year high schools.

41 per cent of the programs were given in schools enrolling fewer than 300 students.

On the basis of various measures of central tendency applied to a limited sample, the typical driver-education program for high-school students in 1952-53 had the following characteristics:

1. The program offered as a separate subject both classroom instruction and practice driving. It met the minimum time standard set by the National Conference on High-School Driver Education.

2. The course usually required one semester.

3. Classroom instruction consisted of almost 3 periods per week and a total of 30 clock hours for the course.

4. Practice driving consisted of almost $2\frac{1}{2}$ periods per week and a total of 8 clock hours for the course.

5. Students enrolled in the program most frequently in Grade XI.

6. Both classroom instruction and practice driving were optional.

7. Students received credit for driver education as a separate subject; from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ unit was allowed toward high-school graduation.

8. Most of the curriculum guides and outlines were obtained from the state motor vehicle department or from automobile clubs.

9. Teachers of driving education are assigned to individual schools and teach the subject on a part-time basis. Driver education as a teaching assignment is most frequently combined with physical education.

10. Teachers of driver education have been duly certified to teach this subject by the state certification agency.

11. Total teaching time of driver-education teachers is about the same as that for teachers of other subjects.

12. The typical professional preparation of teachers for driver education consisted of a one-week intensive course in the subject and some training in general safety education.

13. The school has one car for practice driving and usually a 16mm motion-picture projector.

14. The car for practice driving is rented or borrowed from some agency outside the school. It is equipped with dual brake and clutch pedals and is properly identified as a driver-education car.

15. Beginning practice driving lessons are given on an off-street area; advanced driving lessons, in urban and suburban traffic.

16. It costs about \$350 annually to operate and maintain the car used for practice driving.

17. The course cost the school about \$27 per student enrolled.

18. The driver-education program is usually financed out of the regular school budget.

19. In the typical school there have been no accidents with the car used for practice driving during the past three years.

Now that a good look has been taken at the nature of driver education, it would seem to be time for another study which would evaluate the program's effectiveness in terms of money spent and lives saved. Conclusions 3 and 4 at the end of the NEA study point to the need for such further research:

3. Current programs of high-school driver education need to be evaluated in terms of their objectives. Do those who have successfully completed the course have fewer and less serious accidents than those who have not taken such a course?

Are those who have successfully completed a driver-education course and who are now school-bus drivers, drivers of police, fire department, or other government agency vehicles, or commercial vehicle drivers, better drivers with good driving records? Are fewer of those who have successfully completed a course in driver education traffic law

violators than of those who have not taken the course?

4. State departments of education and state departments of motor vehicles should give the local schools as much help as possible, for example, gather statistics on the extent (enrolments, number of programs, etc.) of driver education, compile data on accidents by age groups for comparison purposes, and recommend new laws or revisions of old laws that will help to increase highway safety.

With traffic accidents one of the greatest hazards to the life of both

pedestrian and driver, we can ill afford to neglect any available means of preventing them. The instilling of correct attitudes and habits in the driver himself through courses in driver education would seem to be the most basic, immediate, and practical method of changing a situation that has become a national threat. Further study is imperative.

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

EDITORIAL ANNOUNCEMENT

WITH the appointment of Dr. Francis S. Chase as chairman of the Department of Education at the University of Chicago, and the beginning of a new academic year, several changes in the Editorial Committee of the *School Review* have occurred. Dr. Chase, who becomes chairman of the committee, is widely known in educational circles. His recent activities have been largely centered in the Midwest Administration Center at the University of Chicago. Long interested in educational journalism, he was at one time editor of the *Virginia Journal of Education* and recently has headed the Education Communications Service, which is sponsored by the National Association of Secretaries of State Teachers Associations and serves teachers' associations in the United States, Canada, England, and other countries. Dr. Maurice F. Seay, whom Dr. Chase succeeds, resigned to take the position of director of the Division of Education of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation in Battle Creek, Michigan.

Other new members of the Editorial Committee are Harold B. Dunkel, professor of education and director of precollegiate education, and William W. Savage, assistant professor of education and assistant director of the Midwest Administration Center.

WHO'S WHO FOR SEPTEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles by ROBERT C. WOELLNER, associate professor

of education, assistant dean of students, and director of vocational guidance and placement at the University of Chicago. NEWTON EDWARDS, professor of education, University of Chicago and University of South Carolina, discusses the need for giving attention to the gifted student to provide leadership in our changing society. R. STEWART JONES, assistant professor of educational psychology at the University of Illinois, reports the findings of a study to determine how well the Tests of General Educational Development, which are administered to non-high-school-graduate servicemen and veterans to determine their eligibility for high-school credits, resist possible jeopardies. RALPH A. BROWN, professor of American history at State Teachers College, Cortland, New York, and MARIAN R. BROWN, formerly acting dean of women at the same institution, discuss "time sense": what it means, why it is important, and how it can be developed. JEAN FAIR, an examiner in the Examiner's Office at the University of Chicago, in the second of two articles, compares the effectiveness of a core and a conventional program (described in the first article) in teaching social concern to high-school students. L. EDWIN HIRSCHI, directing teacher in mathe-

matics at the William M. Stewart Laboratory School, University of Utah, and director of student personnel for the Laboratory School, presents the results of an appraisal of students' feelings toward the democratic classroom setting. ROBERT D. MACCURDY, teacher of biology; VIRGINIA M. MURPHY, teacher of English; ALFRED S. ADAMS, teacher of mathematics; and CARLO VACCA, chairman of the language department, all at Watertown Senior High School, Watertown, Massachusetts, discuss the results of a course in "how to study" on the educational growth of students previously inefficient in study habits. PERCIVAL W. HUTSON, professor of education at the University of Pittsburgh, and KENNETH D. NORBERG, associate professor of education and co-ordinator of audio-visual services at Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California, present a list of selected references on guidance.

Reviewers of books T. NELSON METCALF, professor of physical education and director of

athletics, University of Chicago. WALTER A. WITTICH, director of the Bureau of Audio-visual Instruction, University of Wisconsin. LAVONE A. HANNA, professor of education at the San Francisco State College, San Francisco, California. FRANK S. ALBRIGHT, supervisor of secondary education in the public schools at Gary, Indiana.

EDUCATION OF THE ABLE STUDENT—SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE AND GOALS¹

NEWTON EDWARDS

University of Chicago



LONG AGO Thomas Jefferson recognized the supreme importance of intelligence in a democracy. You will recall that his plan for education in Virginia provided for the selection of a few poor but able youth who were to be given, at public expense, the best education the state afforded. Since Jefferson's day we have become even more keenly aware that the minds of our brightest youth are the most precious resource a society possesses. In saying this, we are casting no reflection upon those to whom nature has been less generous in the bestowing of her talents. They, too, deserve the best education we can give them. But, in this most dramatic and perhaps most portentous moment in human history, the fate of ourselves and indeed of all mankind may well depend upon the quality of our leadership. And the kind of imaginative, intelligent, and positive leadership that our nation and world requires today must be provided and supported by the most gifted of our youth.

NEED FOR LEADERSHIP OF GIFTED

It is not difficult to understand why the conditions of our life make it imperative that we utilize to the utmost the abilities of our most gifted. If any-

thing is clear in our uncertain world today, it is that ours has become an adaptive civilization. Capacity for adjustment and adaptation has come to be the price of survival for individuals and for nations as well.

A fundamental difference between the age that is closing and the one that is opening is a difference in concept with respect to the ways and means of adjusting to new social forces. In the past we could rely, or thought we could, on the operation of more or less automatic processes of social evolution. We had a deep faith that, if let alone, things would somehow right themselves.

It is perfectly clear that much of the social crisis of our time is chargeable to this flight from decision—to our refusal to enter a league of nations in time, to the failure of colony-holding nations to recognize that the days of empire were over, to the failure of leadership in many parts of the world to accept the central fact that in a

¹ Address presented on June 29, 1954, at the Seventeenth Annual Conference on Reading held at the University of Chicago. All the papers given at the conference will appear in *Promoting Maximal Growth among Able Learners*. Compiled and edited by Helen M. Robinson. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 81. Chicago: University of Chicago Press (in press).

technological civilization the gains of science and technology must be translated into gains for all. It is equally clear that in the future we shall have to chart a different course. The need of a more deliberate, conscious, intelligent direction of human affairs has come to be the central meaning of our era.

At times our world may seem to be chaotic and confused, cut loose from its old moorings, set adrift without compass and without goal, and driven now here and now there by incomprehensible social forces. And yet, beneath the surface of events, one may discern that these forces are only parts of ordered patterns of change, parts of large-scale social movements so vast in their sweep and so fateful in their consequences as to be properly regarded as revolutionary. These movements are technological revolution, democratic revolution, and demographic revolution.

TECHNOLOGICAL REVOLUTION

Science, translated into invention and technology, has now become the most dynamic force of our time. We are now in the midst, or perhaps only in the beginning, of a vast technological revolution that is changing the very foundations of society, not only among ourselves, but throughout the world.

One may observe the impact of technological revolution on a society at a number of stages or levels. In the first stage the inventions, the gadgets and machines—telephones, automobiles, radio, television, and atom bomb

—are accepted and used with little or no awareness of their ultimate consequences. The second stage occurs when the use of these new inventions so modifies the environment that many existing social institutions begin to function inadequately or even dangerously. The third stage is when men become aware of the need of modifying old institutional arrangements or of inventing new ones, in order to adjust their lives to the new conditions created by technological advance.

It is in the third stage that social technology becomes imperative, that men must cultivate social inventiveness and experimentation in every area of human relations, whether it be the economy, government, or ethics. This is the stage when men must be sufficiently imaginative and intelligent to master, through social technology, the forces released by physical technology. This is the stage that calls for policy-making, for decision-making, for the choice between alternate proposals. This is the stage we are now in, and the policies, the choices of action that we must decide upon have come to be more fateful in their consequences than any men have ever faced before.

It is clear that technological revolution has disturbed the whole system of relations under which men have lived. Man's control over nature and his physical environment has raced so far ahead of his control over himself and his social institutions that the very foundations of modern civilization are threatened. Everywhere in the world, men are striving to adjust their or-

dered pattern of social institutions to new conditions. In our own country, in whatever institutional arrangement one examines—whether the family, the local community, the school, the economy, or government—one finds that technological revolution has created the need for new insights and understandings and for reorientation and adjustment. In other parts of the world, technological change is perhaps even more disruptive of the old order. So-called “backward” countries are striving to reorganize their economic institutions and to reorient them in the world economy, and they look to us for help, if not leadership. New means of communication and new weapons of war have become solvents of cultures; they bring nations and civilizations that were more or less separate into one orbit. Obviously, technological revolution is bringing a new world order into being, and it is an order calling for trained intelligence directed toward goals wisely chosen and clearly seen.

DEMOCRATIC REVOLUTION

Science and technology are not, of course, the only forces that are tearing the world from its old moorings. Scarcely less important is a democratic revolution that is world-wide in its sweep. The democratic ideals of liberty, equality, and fraternity, which came into being with the dawn of conscience somewhere in man's remote past, are a strange mixture of dreams and hard reality. At times they seem no more than false hopes that lead men on toward a better day that will

never dawn. In reality, they are the hardest things in man's experience. They will not be crushed. They survive political oppression, economic exploitation, serfdom, slavery, and even death, to assert once again their supremacy in the lives of men.

And something like this is taking place in the world today. Men, more or less the world over, are striving to reconstruct their social arrangements so as to make these more effective carriers of democratic ideals. However much their means may differ in reaching their goals, all are searching for a way of life that recognizes the dignity of human beings, that will make the gains of civilization mass gains, that will release the potentialities in each human personality. To be sure, this democratic revolution takes on different forms among different peoples, but, wherever it is found, it has as its goal the realization of one or another of the basic ideals in the democratic tradition. Common men, in almost the whole world, are becoming aware that poverty and disease are no part of a divinely ordered plan of human life, that many of their frustrations are man-made, that better provision can be made for both their essential spiritual and material needs. And, in one way or another, through wise or misdirected effort, they are seeking to secure basic human rights and to become equal participants in the cultural accumulations of the race.

The responsibility of giving this democratic revolution a sympathetic and intelligent leadership has, almost by historic circumstance it would

seem, been thrust upon us in the United States. It is a responsibility that we cannot in good conscience or with safety avoid. All this is to say that in the years ahead we, as a people, will be making decisions fateful for ourselves and for all mankind. And the quality of these decisions will reflect very largely the kind of educational opportunities that we afford the brightest of our youth.

DEMOGRAPHIC REVOLUTION

The population changes that have come to be characteristic of our time constitute a demographic revolution, less dramatic than the two other movements we have noted but no less significant. In our own country the changing rate of population growth; the regional, rural-urban, and class differentials in human fertility; the aging of the population; the movement of people from farm to city, across state lines, from region to region in search of social and economic opportunity—these and other aspects of our changing population create problems that are interwoven with nearly every aspect of public policy.

In many other parts of the world, uncontrolled fertility results in a rate of population growth that is appalling. Many of the peoples of Asia, Africa, and Latin America have adopted those aspects of Western culture that bring death rates under a measure of control but have kept birth rates near customary levels. If present birth and death rates should be maintained, the population of the world would double in about seventy years, and among

some of the more industrially backward peoples the rate of increase is about twice that of the world average.² Obviously, the world is filling up with people, and it is filling up most rapidly in the areas that are already overpopulated. For the larger part of mankind, this pressure of population on the resource structure spells poverty, undernourishment, illiteracy, and no little frustration. As Cook says:

Next to the atom bomb, the most ominous force in the world today is uncontrolled fertility. Unbalanced and unchecked fertility is ravaging many lands like a hurricane or a tidal wave. In Puerto Rico, Egypt, India, Italy, Japan, rampant fecundity has produced more hungry mouths than can be fed. The scramble for bare subsistence by hordes of hungry people is tearing the fertile earth from the hillsides, destroying forests, and plunging millions of human beings into utter misery.³

Clearly, the problems of public policy growing out of population change require leadership of a very high order.

IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION

Too long I have been laboring the contention that the need of a more conscious, deliberate, intelligent direction of human affairs is the central meaning of our time, but it is a concept of great importance in the shaping of educational policy. It means that American education needs to be given a new orientation. The educa-

² Guy Irving Burch (editor), "A Winning Program for Democracy," *Population Bulletin*, VI (November, 1950), 1. Washington: Population Reference Bureau (1507 M Street, N.W.).

³ Robert C. Cook, *Human Fertility: The Modern Dilemma*, p. 5. New York: William Sloane Associates, 1951.

tion of the citizen now becomes quite as important as the education of the individual. And, while the two have much in common, they are by no means identical.

In keeping with our religious and humanistic traditions and in harmony with our whole economic and social theory, education in America has been individual-centered; its fruits have designedly been more private and personal than public and social. The chief concerns of our educational enterprise have been to bring the individual to intellectual, emotional, and physical maturity and excellence and to make him occupationally and professionally proficient. Even the scientific study of education has been oriented around the concept of education as psychological process rather than around the concept of education as public policy.

No one, to be sure, would quarrel with our traditional objectives. Individual excellence is essential in any great civilization. But, in the kind of adaptive civilization ours has come to be, individual excellence is not enough. The conditions of our world now require that education be made a positive instrument of social policy, a means of equipping the individual with the motivations, the knowledge, the understandings, and the social skills essential for decision-making extending all the way from the narrow confines of home and community to the broad expanse of national and international affairs.

It may well appear that I have wan-

dered far afield from anything that is relevant to the interest of persons concerned with the reading of the able student, but there is, I think, a vital connection. In shaping our future course at home and in our dealings with other peoples—in trying to meet wisely our responsibility for world leadership—we shall have to utilize to the fullest the abilities and the competencies of our most gifted youth. And, among the competencies required, proficiency in symbolic communication must be given a high priority. But pointedly, the conditions of our life require bright youth who can read efficiently and understandingly. To participate wisely in high-level policy-making today, one needs to have attained some fundamental understanding of the core values, the wide community of ideas and ideals, that lie at the base of our democratic tradition and around which our civilization has been built. To understand those ideas and values requires that they be regarded as something more than intellectual abstractions. They must be examined in relation to the social context in which they developed, and their career in human history must be traced in considerable detail. Nor may one be less well informed about the moving forces of our own day, both within our own country and among the other peoples of the world. These understandings, so essential for wise leadership, can be attained only by those who have read the record of human experience widely and understandingly.

DO RETESTING AND COACHING INFLUENCE GED TEST SCORES?¹

R. STEWART JONES

University of Illinois



THOUSANDS of veterans and servicemen have received and continue to receive educational credit through the Tests of General Educational Development, better known as GED tests. The high-school-level GED test is designed to measure proficiency in English; reading ability in the social studies, natural sciences, and literary material; and skill in basic mathematics. The battery consists of five subtests, each covering one of the aforementioned areas.

These tests are given to non-high-school graduates in the armed forces or to veterans at civilian testing centers. Successful completion of the tests is accepted for high-school credit in most states and, in addition, is recognized by many universities as equivalent to high-school graduation. In each case, however, the granting or the withholding of credit is decided on by local educators and school administrators. The battery offers the educator a means of extending credit to returning servicemen but, at the same time, faces him with the responsibility

of deciding whether passing the tests merits the giving of high-school credit. In order that educators might have confidence in test results, elaborate precautions have been developed to safeguard the tests, and continuing efforts are being made to study their validity and to determine whether they have equivalence to the educational levels which their successful completion represents.

Unfortunately, even in the most propitious circumstances, doubts may arise about the security of the tests. A single lost test or a single mismanaged administration of a test may jeopardize the acceptance of the program in a given locality. Inevitably in a large-scale program, a test may "leak out," or examinees may accidentally be allowed, in rare cases, to retake tests after only a short interval. In extreme cases it is conceivable that teachers or others might give coaching or direct help with specific achievement tests.

PROBLEM OF THIS STUDY

The present investigation was undertaken to study the effects of retesting and coaching (or tutoring) on

¹ This research was part of a project sponsored by the United States Armed Forces Institute.

scores earned on the high-school-level GED tests. The aim was to determine how well the GED battery resists the possible jeopardies to which it might be subjected. Therefore, a deliberate attempt was made to duplicate the conditions which might ensue if tests were lost or if special help was given examinees prior to their taking the tests. It is difficult to conceive of such conditions occurring in the Veterans Testing Service, and it is practically impossible for them to happen at military installations, where tests are carefully controlled under the direction of the United States Armed Forces Institute. Nevertheless, it was the purpose of this study to simulate the most extreme threats to the validity of this battery in the hope that further confidence in the tests might be inspired among school men.

SUBJECTS AND METHODS

One of the difficulties of a study of this kind is to find subjects who are likely to represent persons normally taking the tests. Motivation and achievement factors ruled out the use of high-school graduates or college students. Even a group of nongraduates who lacked interest in passing the tests would not fairly represent the examinees with whom we were concerned, that is, men who would spend extra time and effort in order to pass.

The group finally used for study consisted of non-high-school-graduate airmen stationed at Chanute Air Force Base, Illinois. A survey was made of all squadrons on the base, and all non-high-school graduates who had

not previously taken GED tests were invited to participate. Of approximately twelve hundred eligible non-graduates on the base, only a few over three hundred were interested enough to respond to the initial invitation. Subsequently, less than half of the three hundred completed all the tests. This heavy attrition was probably due in most cases to poor motivation. It seems likely, therefore, that our final groups were reasonably representative of regular examinees, with respect to both motivation and achievement factors.

The total group was divided into three subgroups in order to approximate the different kinds of retesting-coaching conditions with which we were concerned. A brief summary of the arrangement of testing for the three groups follows:

GROUP I. RETEST WITH AN EQUIVALENT FORM

Form B of GED	After a two-week
test administered,	interval, Form Y of
one test each day for	GED test adminis-
five days.	tered in same man-
	ner as Form B.

GROUP II. RETEST WITH IDENTICAL FORM

Form Y of test	After a two-week
administered, one	interval, retest on
test each day for five	Form Y.
days.	

GROUP III. RETEST WITH AN EQUIVALENT FORM AFTER SPECIAL HELP

Form B of GED	After two-week
tests administered as	interval, during which
in Group I.	five hours of coach-
	ing or study of tests
	was provided, Form
	Y was administered.

Tests were administered in the manner prescribed by the manual of directions. No test forms were lost, nor were there any reported cases of cheating. Scoring of tests was done by hand and was double checked. Each test paper was scored by two persons. Scoring of all final Form Y tests was done at the United States Armed Forces Institute. Raw scores were converted to standard scores ($M = 50$, $\sigma = 10$), by the use of the regular conversion tables supplied by USAFI.

Men of Group I whose scores on at least two subtests were below the passing level were offered special help. Only about one-fifth of the men offered special help took advantage of it. Fourteen men received five hours of supervised study of the tests they had just taken, and eight men had five hours of coaching. The former group were provided dictionaries, an atlas, the *Enlisted Manuals* in the fields of arithmetic and English, the *Columbia Encyclopedia*, and copies of all tests of the test battery which they had just taken. The latter group were tutored by graduate students, who attempted to answer questions asked by examinees.

RESULTS OF INVESTIGATION

This study was designed to answer certain practical questions about score increments as a result of retesting, coaching, and supervised study. Results therefore will be organized in connection with these questions.

1. *What effect does retesting after a short time have on test scores when*

equivalent forms of the same test are used?

Specifically, this question concerns the gains in scores when examinees are given Form B of the GED test and are later given Form Y of the same test. A total of 105 men took Form B followed by Form Y two weeks later. Scores and differences for this group (Group I) are summarized in Table 1. The average standard-score increments for this group was only 1.30 standard-score points.

A total of seventy-five men showed a gain and thirty a loss on the retesting. Gains, except in six cases, never exceeded five standard-score points. The obtained differences, although statistically significant ($P < .001$), are so small that there can be little justification for believing that the prior testing with one form of the GED battery would, in the majority of individual cases, have any marked effect on subsequent GED scores.

2. *What effect does a pretest have on a final test when identical forms of the test are used?*

Specifically, what was the effect on the final Y-Battery scores when the same form of the test had been taken only a short time before?

Fifteen men (Group II) were given Form Y both as a test and as a retest two weeks later. Scores and differences for the group are summarized in Table 1. The average standard-score increment for this group was only 0.79 of a standard-score point. The difference in means was not statistically significant ($P > .05$) and was so slight that there is little justification for be-

TABLE 1

COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES MADE ON TWO ADMINISTRATIONS OF GED TEST BY A GROUP (I) TAKING FORM B FOR TEST AND FORM Y FOR RETEST, BY A GROUP (II) TAKING FORM Y FOR BOTH TEST AND RETEST, AND BY A GROUP (III, MADE UP OF PART OF GROUP I) TAKING THE DIFFERENT FORMS FOR TEST AND RETEST WHO RECEIVED SPECIAL HELP*

GROUP AND SUBTEST	FIRST BATTERY (TEST)		SECOND BATTERY (RETEST)		CORRELATION BETWEEN TEST AND RETEST	DIFFERENCE OF MEANS	t†	PROBABILITY LEVEL
	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	Mean Score	Standard Deviation				
Group I (105 men):								
Correctness and Effectiveness of Expression	39.17	8.9	40.44	4.9	.89	1.27	2.09	P < .05
Interpretation of Reading Materials in the Social Sciences	47.90	7.9	48.23	7.9	.74	.33	.58	P > .05
Interpretation of Reading Materials in the Natural Sciences	51.37	6.2	53.25	9.2	.69	1.88	2.89	P < .01
Interpretation of Literary Materials	47.91	7.0	48.09	10.1	.76	.18	.24	P > .05
General Mathematical Ability	47.85	7.2	49.65	9.4	.83	1.80	3.46	P < .01
Total test	46.73	6.55	48.03	5.27	.89	1.30	4.33	P < .001
Group II (15 men):								
Correctness and Effectiveness of Expression	41.64		40.28			-1.36		
Interpretation of Reading Materials in the Social Sciences	48.71		51.28			2.57		
Interpretation of Reading Materials in the Natural Sciences	53.15		54.38			1.23		
Interpretation of Literary Materials	48.00		49.86			1.86		
General Mathematical Ability	45.57		50.00			4.43		
Total test	47.29	6.4	49.09	5.6	.79	1.80	1.62	P > .05
Group III (22 men):‡								
Total test	39.38	5.6	40.73	4.6	.79	1.35	1.55	P > .05

* Not all men taking the initial tests took the retests. The figures are as follows: Group I—test, 272; retest, 105; Group II—test, 54; retest, 15; Group III—test, 60; retest, 22.

† To find *t*, the formula used was that for correlated means.

‡ Group III consisted of members of Group I whose scores on at least two subtests were below passing level and who were given special help consisting of tutoring and coaching.

lieving that the pretest experience has any marked effect on test scores.

3. *How do the various subtests of the battery reflect the influence of retesting when equivalent forms are used?*

Table 1 shows the gains made on each subtest of the battery for both the B-Y testing and the Y-Y testing. The data are somewhat inconsistent with respect to gains made on subtests, with the exception of the test of General Mathematical Ability, where the gain is high for both experimental setups. At any rate, gains are small and offer convincing evidence that a particular subtest is not responsive to the effects of retesting.

4. *What is the relation between the ability of the examinees and the amount of gain made on the test?*

The scores on the Air Force Qualifications Test were correlated with the amount of gain made on the second test. The resulting product-moment correlation coefficient was $-.19$. A correlation of this size is within the range which would be accepted as due to chance. It suggests that the two tests are not related in any important way.

5. *What effect will coaching on a test or supervised study of a test have on test scores?*

In this study this question becomes: What happened when men who had taken the Form B tests were given five hours of special help in the two weeks intervening between the test and the retest?

Few men availed themselves of the opportunity for special help which was

offered them, especially in the group which was tutored (eight men). Since by inspection it was clear that the gains of the tutored group were no greater than those of the study group, the two groups were combined for analysis into one "special help" group. A summary of the results is given in Table 1 (Group III). The gain (1.35) was little more than the gain for the total group (1.30), and once again the difference in means was not statistically significant ($P > .05$) and was so slight that it cannot be used as evidence that the special help given to these twenty-two airmen had any significant effects on their scores on the retest.

6. *Is the amount of gain made by those receiving special help related to their initial ability or beginning scores?²*

It might be reasoned that one could not expect men of low ability or low initial achievement to show as much gain with special help as those whose ability and whose performance on the first tests were high. However, it was apparent from a casual inspection of the data that such was not the case.

7. *What is the relation between years of formal schooling and gains made on the tests?*

Presumably, those men who had the most formal schooling might have been expected to show greater gains than those who had relatively little school experience, but just the opposite proved true. The correlation

² Special help was given to those whose scores were low—below a standard score of 35 on at least two subtests.

between years of schooling and the amount of gain between the first and the last tests for the 105 men in Group I was $-.26$. Although low, this correlation is statistically significant ($P = .01$) and might indicate that the less schooling men had, the less opportunity they had had to become embittered about school, tests, and the like. Or positively stated, the men with the least schooling looked upon the testing as a more significant ex-

total Group I was divided into three subgroups:

Subgroup A. Men whose initial standard-score averages were 50 or above.

Subgroup B. Men whose initial scores were between 40 and 49.9.

Subgroup C. Men whose initial scores were 39.9 or below.

When these subgroups were compared with respect to the mean amount of gain made on Form Y, the retest, the results shown in Table 2 were obtained. A comparison of the mean gain of the middle group (B) with the low group (C) yields a t test value of 1.82, which with 67 degrees of freedom is not quite significant at the .05 level of confidence. However, it seems likely that this value, together with other data of the study, supports the notion that men in the low-scoring group do a little better proportionately than those who make higher scores.

It is possible that, when the various tests of the GED battery are averaged, important subtest differences are obscured. Therefore the "low scorers" (persons below a standard score of 40) on each subtest were studied to determine the amount of gain made on each test. In Table 3 these gains are compared with the gains for the total group. It is unfortunate that the samples in the last four tests were so small, particularly for the test of Interpretation of Literary Materials, where the low initial scorers gained ten times as many points as did the total group. On the basis of these limited data, it would appear that the

TABLE 2
COMPARISON OF GAINS ON FINAL TESTING
OF SUBGROUPS MAKING DIFFERENT
INITIAL SCORES

Sub-group	Initial Score	Number of Cases	Mean Gain	Standard Deviation
A.....	50 or above	36	1.08	2.43
B.....	40-49.9	49	.92	2.57
C.....	39.9 or below	20	2.65	3.80

perience and were consequently more highly motivated to make better scores. Another explanation would be that men without high-school experience had had less practice with tests and that part of their gain may have reflected this fact; that is, they had become more wise in ways of taking tests as a result of taking the first battery.

8. *What is the relation between initial scores and gains made on the tests?*

In measurement studies there is frequently an inverse relation between initial scores on tests and gains made on subsequent tests. This study was no exception. For analysis, the

literature test for the low group was least subject to the effects of retesting.

9. *Are there special or outstanding cases which are exceptions to the general findings of this study?*

As previously noted, gains were slight. There were a few cases, however, where gains exceeded five standard-score points. The writer arbitrarily selected the five men who had gained seven or more points on the retest. Three of these men had re-

gain, 10.8 points, was very highly motivated. Twice he had to be refused admittance to supervised study sessions as he had already used up his five hours of time in the first two days. He begged for more time and, finally, as a last resort, parked himself in the Information and Education Office where he studied manuals, asked questions, and, in general, made a delightful pest of himself. Such cases are indeed rare and, in the writer's opinion,

TABLE 3
COMPARISON OF GAINS MADE BY LOW INITIAL SCORERS
WITH GAINS MADE BY TOTAL GROUP I

SUBTEST	NUMBER OF CASES	MEAN GAIN		
		Low Scorers	Total Group I	Difference
Correctness and Effectiveness of Expression.....	48	3.48	1.27	2.21
Interpretation of Reading Materials in the Social Sciences..	17	6.70	.33	6.37
Interpretation of Reading Materials in the Natural Sciences..	12	11.17	1.88	9.29
Interpretation of Literary Materials.....	19	2.11	.18	1.93
General Mathematical Ability.....	16	4.25	1.80	2.45

ceived special help, and two had not. Inspection of such factors as age, ability, and years in school showed nothing in common for these men, except that all had *small amounts of formal schooling*. Only one had started high school, and he did not finish Grade IX. Apparently the success of these men was due to chance (we would expect this many high gains in 105 cases) or to factors not measured in this study.

The writer believes that, in one or two of the cases, outstanding motivation may have produced the gains. The man who made the greatest total

do not constitute a jeopardy to the security of the GED tests. On the contrary, men who are so highly motivated are likely to profit greatly from the intervening activity and actually learn a great deal, not about the tests themselves, but about the areas they cover.

CONCLUSIONS

The high-school-level Tests of General Educational Development apparently are highly resistant to the effects of retesting, study, and coaching. Gains made by the 120 men who retook the test battery after being

given various degrees of familiarity with the same or equivalent batteries were slight, and in many cases men actually made poorer scores on the second battery. In the entire research there were only a few statistically significant differences which would support the belief that scores would increase as a result of increased familiarity with the tests. Even men who were allowed to study the tests or were coached on the tests themselves made only slight gains—gains which were well within the chance expectancies.

It is perhaps significant that all differences were in the same direction; that is, the averages on the retest for all groups was slightly higher than those for the first test. But the gains were so small that those persons who use these tests should have little cause for concern about men who retake the tests. The present practice of having men wait six months before retaking tests that they have failed may be defensible from an educational standpoint, but it is certainly not warranted from a measurement standpoint if the results of this research are valid.

It should be re-emphasized that, out of the 326 men who began tests, only 120 completed all ten tests. If we assume that those who finished tests were the most highly motivated men, the results take on added meaning, because even these well-motivated men failed to realize significant profit from their experience with the tests.

Gains made on various subtests of the battery were not large. However,

here differences between the test and the retest were somewhat more pronounced. The data of this research indicate that, in general, Test 1, Correctness and Effectiveness of Expression, was the most resistant to the effects of retesting and coaching, while Test 5, General Mathematical Ability, appeared to be the least resistant.

In one case, through error, an airman was administered the same test, Test 2, twice in the same week. The man did not realize it was the same test until he had finished it; and it was found that he had made a lower score than on the first testing. This one incident magnified many times characterized the findings of this research. Short of having men actually study the answer keys, it seems unlikely that they will enjoy any great benefit from retesting. A safe conclusion seems to be that the validity of the GED tests will not be jeopardized by having men take tests over again, even if only a brief interval separates the test and the retest.

Clearly, generalization from these findings to shorter tests or to speed tests would not be wise. There is every reason to believe that short subject-matter tests or tests in which familiarity may increase speed would be compromised by the conditions used in this research. However, as long as the GED testing program involves a comprehensive battery of tests, it seems safe to conclude that increased familiarity with tests (within reasonable limits) will not jeopardize the program.

TIME AND CHRONOLOGY IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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TIME is a vague term, hard to define accurately. It means different things to different persons. For example, we accept the fact that to adults, just as to children, the phrase "a long time ago" brings different concepts. Teachers of the social studies know that many expressions of time are made in vague and indefinite terms and that even history professors sometimes find it difficult to express to others what time means to them. How many of us can truly comprehend the span of time expressed by "four centuries ago" or "ten thousand years"?

Yet, as teachers, we all want our pupils to develop a sense of time. We believe that the maximum benefit from the social studies depends to a large extent upon the development of such a concept. We feel sure that not only today, but as adult citizens in tomorrow's world, the boys and girls in our classes must have mastery of such a concept, an appreciation of the relation of the passage of the years to events and personalities. At the same time, we know perfectly well that not all of our pupils, at any grade level, will develop this sense of time.

DEVELOPING A SENSE OF TIME

Sense of sequence.—What do we mean by time sense, or a sense of time?

The present writers believe that there are three separate steps or levels of achievement in the development of a time sense. In the first place, we must develop a sense of sequence, of the order in which events occur and of their relation one to another. The child begins to get this at an early age, at least as soon as he realizes that some people are young and others are old and that the young gradually become older. This latter is a developmental idea. In the same manner, to a very young child playing with blocks, a single block may represent a house. But as soon as that child begins to put blocks together to form a house, he gets the idea of sequence or relation and the interdependence of one thing with another. Gradually, the child learns, through observation and through experience, that most of the things with which he comes in contact are the result of step-by-step occurrence or development, some having developed slowly, some more quickly. The child will get this idea of sequence, the idea that one event or incident follows another, to some extent without our help. The carry-over of this idea into the field of history or social studies, however, depends for most youngsters on the encouragement and assistance of the teacher.

Comprehending span of years.—A second step in the achievement of a time sense is the development of an ability to comprehend the span of years between individual events, incidents, or people. To go back to our illustration of the young child who realizes that one person is older than the other, he may, when asked to say how much older, reply, "Oh, eighty years older," or perhaps, "About a million years older." To the small child, the two are almost synonymous. In other words, a year, eighty years, a million years are all meaningless terms. He has no accurate sense of time units. Gradually the child learns to translate the movements of the clock's hands into his own comings and goings, to read a calendar, to tell what day of the week his birthday will fall on. The older child wrestles with concepts of B.C. and A.D., with the learning of a vocabulary of time concepts and phrases. Somewhere along the trail to adulthood (and as with all of these concepts and realizations it surely comes at a different age for different people), boys and girls begin to distinguish between definite and indefinite time expressions, for example, between "a month ago" and "some time ago." Years and divisions of years begin to have meaning: "Do you remember the first time we went swimming last spring?" or "When I was five and began going to kindergarten, I was always afraid of that big black dog."

Accurate measuring of time.—Finally, the development of a true time sense must wait upon the grasp of the

science of measuring time by regular divisions and an appreciation of the assigning to events of a proper date, upon an understanding of the accurate sequential placement of events. Thus, while it may not be necessary for the boy or girl, the man or woman, to be able to discuss the development of the calendar, it is necessary to the achievement of a time sense that they recognize and accept the fact that all time can be measured with precision and that every event has a definite date. This does not necessarily mean that we expect young people to learn these dates, but they should realize that they can look up and place every event on a time continuum by means of an exact or an approximate date.

Even with such understandings, pupils seldom have a very mature time sense. Yet, with this background, they are ready to set up a skeleton of important markers or dates which will help them quickly and accurately to judge and place in correct periods or centuries the events, incidents, and peoples about which they will study in their history courses. The mature development of a time sense comes slowly, over years, as the child continues to enrich his experience with historical materials.

IMPORTANCE OF A TIME SENSE

Now that we have, to some extent, defined a sense of time, we may well ask why a time sense is important. All teachers, presumably, have tried to develop in their pupils a sense of time. How often have we stopped to ask ourselves what such time sense

will contribute? What is its true value? Too many of us have spent time and effort, whether at the elementary- or secondary-school level, on time concepts until we have come to believe that there is something inherently valuable and desirable in the knowledge of dates or times alone. Ability to read the clock or the calendar is certainly indispensable to successful living in our society. But these mechanical skills or the recital of dates is not, the present writers contend, to be confused with the real contribution which mature time sense can make to the major objectives which we recognize for our subject matter or area. Let us examine time sense from that point of view.

Concept of historical continuity.—Henry Johnson speaks of the two major purposes of historical study as historical continuity and the historical method of arriving at facts.¹ He also gives the over-all objective of social-studies instruction as the need to make the social world intelligible.² This last ties very readily to the objective of historical continuity. It would seem obvious that the social world cannot be really intelligible to anyone who has no concept of historical continuity or historical development.

It seems just as obvious that a time sense, as previously defined (a sense of sequence; ability to comprehend the span of years between individual events, incidents, and people; and an understanding of the accurate sequen-

tial placement of events), is absolutely essential to understanding this historical continuity. No teacher, for example, would try to develop a real understanding of the great urban social problems, such as juvenile delinquency or lack of adequate housing, without attention to the development of industrialization in our nation, with its resulting growth of cities, the increase in the numbers of unskilled workers, the growing friction between capital and labor, the coming to our cities of large numbers of people from different cultural and social backgrounds. Just as important to understanding would be the sequential development or relation of social, economic, and political events—the role of the Civil War in removing the Southern-agrarian check on industrialization; the importance of the discovery of new processes for making steel in the development of large-scale industry.

Heritage of the past and future progress.—There is an emphasis on values and appreciations which is inherent in the study of all history and should not be ignored. Who can trace and understand the struggle that man has known since the beginning of the Christian Era in the attempts to obtain universal appreciation of the inherent worth of each individual, and not think of democracy and its privileges with reverence? With such an appreciation of man's long struggle, by revolution, individual suffering, and heroism, a citizen is slow to discard proved values and institutions. Yet a feeling for time and a knowledge

¹ Henry Johnson, *Teaching of History*, p. 118. New York: Macmillan Co., 1940 (revised).

² *Ibid.*, p. 124.

of the need for change may well keep him from ultra-conservatism or reactionary tendencies. The present threat of communism can be tied in more effectively in the web of history as the attempts to end liberty in the past are understood. Such depth of knowledge of other times makes for a more effective defense, for a more aggressive, positive campaign to move ahead, to progress toward better government and toward improved social agencies.

Thus we strive to develop time sense in our studies because without this sense the major objectives of our instruction can never be realized.

TEACHING A TIME SENSE IN SOCIAL STUDIES

"Gadgets."—How then shall our students acquire a time sense? We live in a "gadget" age, and gadgets have moved out from the kitchen until they occupy our classroom. Woe be the social-studies teacher who is not plentifully supplied with gadgets for every commendable purpose—including entertainment on a rainy day. For the teaching of time sense, we are not lacking in such gadgets. We have dozens of kinds of time lines; we have mechanical gadgets for learning to read the clock and the calendar; we have electrically wired boards that flash a bright light when the correct event and date are "hooked up"; we have flash cards and blank cards.

We are not suggesting that these gadgets are worthless; some of them, to the contrary, are extremely useful. In teaching key dates, the flash boards

can be helpful. For the glimpsing of relations, time lines, when properly constructed, can be almost indispensable. Yet these gadgets play at best a secondary role in the development of time sense.

Memorization of dates.—If gadgets will not provide a ready-made time sense, it is equally true that the memorization of dates will not accomplish that objective. We have passed through several phases in our attitude toward dates. When the writers were children in school, there seemed to be many dates to learn; yet older people assured us that there had been many more to learn when they were in school. When we began teaching, the memorizing of dates was rapidly losing all respectability. Now, perhaps, we are moving back in the opposite direction and are placing more emphasis on the ability to recall exact names and dates.

Personally, the present writers believe that dates are very useful devices, that our students will learn more, understand better, and retain longer if they know a few precise and exact dates to use as hooks. Yet we think the matter of how many dates one should learn, for example, is relatively unimportant in terms of developing time sense.

If young people do not gain this time sense, which we all recognize as being so important, from the use of gadgets or the memorizing of long lists of dates, how then are they going to gain it?

Good teaching.—We believe the an-

swer is that they will gain this sense through good teaching. Good teaching will always include some conscious attempt to develop time sense. But time consciousness will not be the main emphasis, for time sense develops indirectly as a student grows in understanding and appreciation of events and the situations which cause them.

Our understanding of the mechanics of time sense, like our understanding of how we learn, is somewhat vague. The psychology of learning can contribute much, it is true. Perhaps we can compare learning to read with gaining time sense. Some people maintain that most children would learn to read even if they were never taught this skill. They say that there is such a thing as reading readiness, and kindergarten and the first grade are often devoted to widening the child's background of experience so that he can be "readied" for reading. In the same way, schools continually enrich a child's experience through study of what other peoples in other countries eat and wear, their houses and habits. Gradually, the teacher begins to take his students backward into other times—relating events, showing causes and results—until the child has a greater time readiness. Somewhere in the middle grades, at least some children are ready to begin to understand time as it applies to history. It would seem that many more of them should

be ready when they enter junior high school.

As these young people come to search for cause and effect of events, they will have a concrete background into which to tie events, and they will have less use for the questionable crutch of dates. Our teaching will delve deeply into an era, and thus young people will think of former times not merely as different from today but as just as real and vital as the present. We will strive for greater realism in presenting the past. We will do this by a continuous, mighty effort to show relationships, to make our students conscious of change and development, to build appreciation of both the complexity and the interrelatedness of the present world.

CONCLUDING COMMENT

We should like our own students, and our own children, to develop a feeling for time rather than for dates. For example, if we mention the cotton gin, they will think of the slow, uneconomical labor of the cotton-picking slaves, the beginning of industrialization, the intensification of the slavery crisis, of the beginnings of our present national government, rather than think only of the date, 1793. We must strive, then, for depth and relationship, for a feeling of a century or an era rather than the listing of events and isolated dates.

THE COMPARATIVE EFFECTIVENESS OF A CORE AND A CONVENTIONAL CURRICULUM IN DEVELOPING SOCIAL CONCERN. II

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THIS is the concluding section of a two-part article reporting the results of a study to determine which type of curriculum, core or conventional, is more effective in developing social concern in high-school students.

Part I¹ defines *social concern* and describes the objectives, the learning experiences and their organization, and methods of evaluation in the two curriculums.

Part II continues with a report on the testing program and a statistical comparison of the two groups.

FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESES

There were some reasons to believe that certain features of the core program provided better general conditions for learning than did the features of the conventional program. Group planning in the core classes, greater opportunities for core teachers to know individual students, more opportunities for core students to learn to understand themselves, and more

provisions for individual differences might be expected to make the core curriculum more meaningful and to provide better for capitalizing upon, developing, and clarifying the purposes, capabilities, and needs of students.

It was to be expected, too, that interpersonal relations in core groups interfered less often with progress toward the objectives, while core students' responsibilities for contributing to the progress of their groups reinforced individual purposes for learning. Insofar as group planning and group evaluation of several kinds of individual progress were effective, satisfactions in the core curriculum ought to have been inherent in the learning activities or more nearly like those desirably received in out-of-school living. It seemed, then, that the core curriculum provided better for giving satisfactions.

The core curriculum would also be expected to provide more opportunities for practicing what has been defined in this study as *social concern* than did the conventional program. Moreover, the core program permitted

¹ Jean Fair, "The Comparative Effectiveness of a Core and a Conventional Curriculum in Developing Social Concern. I," *School Review*, LXII (May, 1954), 274-82.

a somewhat greater variety of meaningful experiences which might draw upon several content fields than did the other program.

Although students in both programs had opportunities to obtain knowledge of their progress from several kinds of evaluation, the qualitative evaluations used in the core classes gave students knowledge of progress toward a somewhat greater variety of objectives than did the marks given in the conventional classes.

Hypothesis I. Development of awareness of social conditions.—Although it might be expected that general conditions for learning were better in the core than in the conventional curriculum, the conventional program gave more emphasis to the acquisition of information and understanding than did the core program. It seemed reasonable to expect that core students acquired neither more nor less awareness of present social conditions than did students in the conventional program. Consequently, the first hypothesis of this study was that, as a result of their experiences in the core program, twelfth-grade core students, as a group, were as aware of social conditions as were a like group of twelfth-grade students in the conventional program.

Hypothesis II. Application of fact and value generalizations.—The core program had fewer requirements for observing subject boundaries, somewhat more content dealing with present social problems, and somewhat

greater opportunities for allowing students to build upon previously learned meanings. The existence of these features, along with those which provided better general conditions for learning, ought to have meant that core students' generalizations applicable to social problems were more meaningful and more available for use in a wider range of situations than were those of students in the conventional program. A reasonable second hypothesis was that, as a result of their experiences in the core program, twelfth-grade core students, as a group, were more able to apply statements of fact and value generalizations to social problems than were a like group of twelfth-grade students in a conventional program.

Hypothesis III. Democratic position.—It was thought that the less authoritarian role of the teacher in core classes and the greater attention to group procedures, along with encouragement in making decisions and the actual use of democratic methods in the operation of classes, ought to make for less resistance to change and more consistent and more democratic beliefs about social goals and policies. Since core students were expected to deal with less content than were students in the conventional program, they were likely to have less-confused and more consistent beliefs. There were, too, those general conditions which made for better learning in core classes. A third hypothesis, then, was that, as a result of their experiences in the core program, twelfth-grade stu-

dents, as a group, were more willing to take a democratic position toward social goals and policies than were a like group of twelfth-grade students in a conventional program.

Hypothesis IV. Interest in social affairs.—Moreover, the use of student-teacher planning in the core program, along with the provisions made for individual differences, and the greater importance attached to developing interests in present social problems were expected to allow students to engage in a wider variety of meaningful and satisfying activities than those provided in the other program, where the activities were more nearly uniform for all and less often selected for the purpose of developing interests in present social problems. It was thought that the less authoritarian role of the core teacher and the core group's greater attention to the security of its members ought to create less resistance to taking up new activities. A fourth hypothesis was, therefore, that, as a result of their experiences in the core program, twelfth-grade core students, as a group, were more interested in social conditions, events, goals, and action than a like group of students in a conventional program.

SELECTION OF STUDENTS FOR COMPARISON

Comparable groups of students in each of the two curricular programs were then selected in order to compare the degree to which they had actually developed social concern. The most convincing evidence was expected to

come from a comparison of the twelfth-grade groups, since they had been in the programs for the longest period, but comparisons of groups in lower-grade levels were expected to furnish additional evidence.

Each student in the core program was closely matched with a student in the conventional program of the same grade level, intelligence, social status, sex, and (if Negro or Jewish) minority group. Each of the students had been in only one of these two programs each of the years he had been in high school. With a few exceptions, all core students who had entered the program in Grade IX were included in the investigation. In all, there were two twelfth-grade groups, each made up of twenty-six students; two eleventh-grade groups of twenty-nine students each; two tenth-grade groups of forty-five each; and two ninth-grade groups of forty-three each.

It was not possible to obtain measures of the degree to which students at upper-grade levels had developed social concern at the time they entered Grade IX of either of the programs. However, several reasons made tenable the assumption that groups entering the two programs were alike in the degree to which they had developed social concern.

MEASUREMENTS OF SOCIAL CONCERN

The most efficient method of measuring growth in social concern seemed to be the administration of paper-and-pencil tests in which students had opportunities to demonstrate the behav-

iors defined in the content areas selected. Since only one available test was valid for measurement of any one aspect of social concern, three other tests were constructed.

Awareness of social conditions.—The test of awareness of social conditions presented students with sixty-four multiple-choice items. Students were asked to identify an actual state of affairs by choosing one of four descriptive statements of a condition. A score, the number of correct responses, was determined for each student, and mean scores for each group were obtained. The significance of the difference of the mean scores of two correlated groups at any one grade level was determined by use of Fisher's t .² A confidence level of 5 per cent or less was considered sufficient for the rejection of the null hypotheses developed for testing the hypotheses of the investigation.

Applying statements of fact and value generalizations.—The test of ability to apply statements of fact and value generalizations to social problems had this form:

1. A social problem was presented (the test included eight).

2. Each problem was followed by three courses of action—one "democratic," one "undemocratic," and one "middle-of-the-road"—from which students were to choose the one they considered best.

3. A list of "reasons," made up of statements of fact and value generalizations, was given for each problem. Students were asked to choose the reasons which they would use

to support the course they had chosen and to indicate which of these were capable of verification.

Checking consistency of generalizations with conclusions.—The ability to see whether statements of generalizations were consistent with conclusions was described by three kinds of per cent scores: (1) those for comprehensiveness, (2) those for consistency, and (3) those for value direction. In order to compare these per cent scores of the core and the conventional groups, one of two formulas was used. When numbers were large and per cents not extreme, the standard errors of the difference were computed.³ When numbers were under 100 or the per cents were extreme, this standard error was computed by the appropriate formula,⁴ and the significance of the difference was then determined by a table of the normal probability function.⁵

Distinguishing between statements of fact and value generalizations.—The ability to distinguish between statements of verifiable fact and value generalizations was described by summarizing the number of correct responses to items, which were statistically treated as were scores on the test of awareness.

Willingness to take a democratic position.—The test of willingness to take a democratic position toward social goals and policies presented ninety-six items, statements of goals and policies. For every goal there were three con-

² *Ibid.*, pp. 76-77.

³ *Loc. cit.*

⁴ *Loc. cit.*

⁵ Quinn McNemar, *Psychological Statistics*, p. 226. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949.

sistent policies. On each statement students had opportunities to agree, disagree, or indicate uncertainty. Three sets of per cent scores were obtained from the test: the first described the degree to which students approved any stands at all; the second set described the value directions of the stands approved; and the third described the degree to which policies chosen were consistent with chosen goals. All these scores were treated statistically by the same methods used for per cent scores from the test of ability to apply generalizations.

Administering and scoring the tests.

—Care was taken in the process of constructing and administering the tests to see that the forms of the tests and the conditions under which the tests were given actually allowed students to demonstrate the behaviors defined in the content areas selected. Moreover, when the tests were given to two groups of students judged by teachers in the school to have developed a high degree or a low degree of social concern, the high groups made significantly better scores than did low groups. The belief was warranted that the tests had enough validity to serve as useful measuring instruments. Because this investigation was concerned with differences between groups rather than individuals and because chance factors were accounted for in determining significances of differences between scores, the reliabilities of the tests for individual scores were not computed. Keys were based upon the judgments of three "experts"

and the power of items to discriminate between the groups of students who scored high and low on the tests in preliminary tryouts in other schools with comparable populations.

The P.E.A. Interest Index 8.2a⁶ contained items valid for measuring interests in social affairs. The test presented a series of statements describing activities, from which thirty-one were selected. Students were asked to indicate their liking, indifference, or dislike for each activity. Again, care was used in setting up conditions for testing which allowed students to make valid responses. The tests were administered under the same conditions to students in both programs. Scores for the test were of two kinds: first, the total number of "like" responses and, second, the total number of "dislike" and "indifferent" responses. These scores were again treated statistically by the same methods for treating scores from the test of awareness.

RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION

Statistically significant differences between core and conventional groups at each grade level are summarized in Table 1.

An examination of the data on which this table is based showed no difference on the test of social awareness between the scores of twelfth-grade groups in the core and conventional

⁶ Progressive Education Association Interest Index (8.2a). Chicago: Progressive Education Association, Evaluation in the Eight-Year Study, University of Chicago, 1939.

curriculums or between those of eleventh-grade groups which could not be attributed to chance. The inferiority of the ninth-grade core group seemed best accounted for by the core program's lack of emphasis on acquiring information and its emphasis upon learning to plan. The superiority of the tenth-grade core group could be ac-

Data obtained from the test of ability to apply statements of fact and value generalizations about differences between twelfth-grade groups and those at lower-grade levels showed no differences not accounted for by chance. Such data did not uphold the second hypothesis of the study.

The data about twelfth-grade

TABLE 1
SUMMARY OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CORE AND CONVENTIONAL
PROGRAM GROUPS ON TESTS OF SOCIAL CONCERN

Test	CURRICULUM FAVORED*			
	Grade IX	Grade X	Grade XI	Grade XII
Awareness of social conditions.	Conven- tional	Core		
Ability to apply statements of fact and value generaliza- tions:				
Comprehensiveness.....				
Consistency.....				
Value direction.....				
Ability to distinguish be- tween statements of fact and value.....				
Willingness to take a demo- cratic position:				
Willingness to take any stand.....			Core	Core Core Core
Democratic value direction.....		Core		
Consistency.....				
Interest in social affairs.....				

* If column is blank, no significant difference was found.

counted for by the core program's increased emphasis on acquiring information and development of ability to plan and by the conventional program's comparatively low enrolment in social studies. The evidence of the data, then, supported the hypothesis that twelfth-grade students in a core program were as aware of social conditions as were twelfth-grade students in a conventional program.

groups obtained from the test of willingness to take a democratic position toward social goals and policies showed that the core group was significantly superior and supported the third of the hypotheses. The data about groups at lower grade levels suggested that core students were developing superiority in this aspect of social concern over a period of years. Moreover, the data suggested that,

when the core program was most like the conventional, as in Grade XI, core students grew more slowly in this aspect of social concern.

Data obtained from the test measuring interest in social affairs did not show significant differences between core and conventional groups at any grade level and, consequently, did not support the last of the four hypotheses of the investigation.

The data showed, then, that the core curriculum was neither more nor less effective than the conventional program in developing awareness of social conditions, ability to apply fact and value generalizations to social problems, and interest in social affairs but that it was more effective in developing willingness to take a democratic position toward social goals and policies.

FURTHER ANALYSIS OF THE CORE CURRICULUM

A further examination of the core curriculum suggested some explanation of its lack of greater effectiveness in promoting growth in all aspects of social concern. It seemed that core groups did not fully utilize the possibilities for flexibility within their curriculum but followed, instead, familiar and customary patterns.

Objectives and learning experiences.

—Core groups did actually plan objectives, learning experiences and their organization, and methods of evaluating. However, an examination of the topics chosen, particularly those in the upper grades, showed that core groups

drew heavily upon the topics selected by other core groups and topics designed for classes in the conventional program. It was likely that, by doing so, core groups limited their success in developing clearer purposes and in selecting more meaningful and appropriate content than was found in the conventional program. Moreover, failure to define clearly the behaviors to be developed and to relate these behaviors to specific content made it difficult for groups to plan learning experiences much more useful for developing all the aspects of social concern than were those of the other program. The core program relied almost as heavily upon one set of learning activities—preparing, presenting or hearing, and discussing reports on aspects of the topic of the unit—as the conventional program relied upon its common set—studying and discussing the day's assignment.

Core groups did not usually plan many experiences at the ends of units for generalizing many of the understandings, values, or abilities which had been learned. Furthermore, since many of these were not clearly identified, it was no easier to develop them effectively in succeeding units than in the other program, where a similar lack of identification and of subject boundaries also made planning for sequential development difficult. Then, too, because of failure to make explicit the concepts, values, and abilities to be learned, it proved difficult for core groups to enrich and integrate

what was learned in several subject fields. Core groups could not take full advantage of their freedom from the restrictions of the subject-matter boundaries of the conventional program.

Evaluation.—Moreover, the methods of evaluation used were more customary than adequate for judging growth in social concern. They gave many students little more knowledge of their progress and hardly more help in developing more effective methods of learning than did the marks given in the other program. Methods of evaluating did not make clear to core groups the need for giving up common patterns for those more appropriate for progress toward more carefully defined objectives.

CONCLUDING COMMENT

The core program was no less effective in developing any of the aspects of social concern than was the conventional program, and it was more effective in developing willingness to take a democratic position toward social affairs. Since the year in which this investigation was made, those students and teachers participating in the core program have made some changes, as, indeed, have those in the conventional program as well. It would be interesting to compare again the effectiveness of the two programs in developing social concern. Less reliance on familiar and customary patterns may allow better utilization of the opportunities open in a core curriculum and so increase its effectiveness.

A STUDENT EVALUATION OF CLASSROOM PROCEDURES

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THE many alert, valiant teachers who, during the past decade, have satisfactorily made the shift from the authoritarian to the democratic classroom must at times wonder how their students feel about the whole conception of classroom climate. Many of these students, either directly or indirectly, had been indoctrinated to accept the traditional teacher-dominated classroom to be inevitable, if not desirable. For some students and their teachers the transition has been an exciting experience filled with activity and freedom, while to others it may have brought anxiety and frustration. As the older techniques of assign, study, recite, and test—and their accompanying evils—give way to working *with* students in planning the goals, collecting the evidence, making judgments, and revising and modifying plans and procedures, it is to be expected that some teachers will tenaciously cling to their traditionalism, while a few who have broken the chains may even revert.

Both from within and from without, the modern school is being asked such questions as “Are children learning the three R’s?” “Has school discipline disintegrated?” “Is modern ped-

agogy too soft to build stamina and character?” “Do children really work in the modern school?” “Are teachers and children happy with their mutually designed freedom?”

While in many cases the questions asked may be narrowly conceived in light of our total educational goals, yet surely these questions are timely and important. The traditional subject-matter tests and the newer scales and inventories will give partial answers to some of the questions, but on-the-spot evaluation by students and teachers will become increasingly important as we consider the understandings, skills, and attitudes of the child and view him as a growing and creative personality.

ADMINISTERING THE APPRAISAL DEVICE

This article reports the results of an appraisal device, the purpose of which was to determine how the student feels in the democratic classroom setting.

In the recognition that in the democratic classroom the student must be a participating and planning member of the group, and the teacher an important resource person who understands and works with children, the teacher's

efforts in the classroom in which this appraisal was made were characterized by the following principles:

1. Fear, pressure, or competition of any kind must not be used as a means of frightening a child into desirable achievement or behavior.

2. Every child has creative ability and worth-while interests, which must be discovered and encouraged by providing opportunity for optimum expression and development.

3. The emotional climate of the classroom

must be relatively free from frustration, conflicts, inhibitions, fears, and overstimulation.

4. All behavior has a cause, and any overt action or expression should be considered in light of the purposes and needs activating the student.

5. Learning takes place most effectively when the learner has had a voice in determining the goals and understands and accepts them and when he participates actively and fully in the attainment of these goals.

The appraisal was made by a group of 116 eighth- and ninth-grade stu-

TABLE 1

RESPONSES OF 106 PUPILS IN EIGHTH- AND NINTH-GRADE MATHEMATICS CLASSES TO ITEMS ON A CLASS APPRAISAL SHEET

ITEM	NUMBER OF RESPONSES*	
	Yes	No
1. Would more pressure from the teacher expedite your learning?.....	24	92
2. Would you like a more quiet class?.....	58	55
3. Would you prefer to be seated away from your best friends to avoid interference?.....	32	81
4. Would you prefer to hand in more assignments?.....	33	83
5. Would you like more tests?.....	43	73
6. Would you like to work at the blackboard occasionally?.....	66	51
7. Would you like more drill or review of mathematics vocabulary?.....	87	29
8. Would you like to have more opportunity of explaining to the class how you did certain problems?.....	46	68
9. Would you like to have more out-of-class assignments?.....	23	92
10. Would you care to participate in keeping interesting items on the bulletin board?.....	95	21
11. Recognizing the limitations of our classroom, do you prefer a seating arrangement other than parallel rows?.....	68	47
12. Do you want more voice in what we study?.....	65	50
13. Are you satisfied with the notebook system used?.....	100	15
14. Do you see a need for class organization—president, etc., or leader, recorder, etc.?.....	13	103
15. Does the teacher provide ample opportunity for special help both during and outside of class?.....	111	5
16. Are you comfortable in the presence of the teacher?.....	105	11
17. Does the teacher embarrass you excessively?.....	8	106
18. Is the teacher reasonably fair to all students?.....	109	7
19. Does the teacher waste time?.....	4	112
20. Do you feel the teacher has enough knowledge of the subject?.....	114	2
21. Is there enough fun and pleasantness in the class?.....	86	30
22. Does the teacher show an interest in each student?.....	102	14
23. Do you feel that the teacher often refuses to admit he is wrong?.....	9	107
24. Is the teacher's communication sufficiently clear and accurate?.....	108	8
25. Does the work move along rapidly enough for you?.....	106	10

* The total of "Yes" and "No" responses for all items is not 116 due to omissions on the part of a few students.

dents in mathematics classes at the William M. Stewart Training School on the University of Utah campus. The appraisal device was administered and summarized by students themselves in the absence of the teacher. The students had complete assurance that their responses would not be identified, and every effort was made to encourage them to appraise in terms of long-term goals and ultimate values.

The group spent considerable time interpreting and evaluating the results of the appraisal. While the complete evaluation data are not presented here, the responses to twenty-five of the more interesting items are given in Table 1.

SUMMARY AND INTERPRETATION OF RESPONSES

The co-operativeness and the desire of the students to participate in the appraisal described in this article seem to be indicative of its value. That participation was a valuable experience for both teacher and students in identifying and achieving goals cannot be denied. The appraisal does not provide conclusive Yes or No answers to the questions asked earlier in this article. The responses do, however, leave the impression that mathematics is being learned. There seems to be little evidence of the frustration and unhappiness which might accompany dissatisfaction and lack of success.

The responses to questions concerning situations which might be the cause or result of poor discipline, such as Items 1, 3, 19, and 25, do not indicate serious difficulty in this area.

There appears to be some evidence of the presence of the factors which build stamina and character. For example, individuality, self-direction, insight into needs, and appreciation for freedom are portrayed through the responses to Items 5, 6, 7, 8, and 12.

As we study the responses further, it is interesting to note those items on which the opinions of the class are almost evenly divided. The quietness of the class (Item 2), work at the blackboard (Item 6), seating arrangement (Item 11), and voice in what is studied (Item 12) are significant examples of areas in which an even split would seem to be desirable.

Many teachers feel that they have met the criterion of a democratic classroom when they have organized the class with officers. The response of this group of students indicates that they do not feel such organization essential in their particular mathematics class (Item 14).

The responses to Item 13, which deals with the notebook system, reveals an overwhelming approval of utility, flexibility, and individuality as opposed to formality, uniformity, and teacher-structured content.

While it is comforting to the teacher to know that many of his values are being fairly well met, as indicated by the preponderance of favorable replies to Items 15 through 25, yet any good teacher would be reluctant to rest until negative replies to such a significant item as Question 17 ("Does the teacher embarrass you excessively?") have been completely eliminated.

CAN WE TEACH THEM HOW TO STUDY?

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THE PROBLEM

THE FAILING MARKS received by some of the students in Watertown Senior High School were causing serious concern to the faculty. The intelligence quotients, training, and backgrounds of these students were average or better. An investigation of the behavior of these boys and girls indicated that, basically, their problem was one of how to study. Apparently, they had never been taught to study effectively and efficiently.

A committee, appointed by the headmaster of the school, studied the matter and made many suggestions for general improvement, including the recommendation that the school arrange a special course, taught by several interested teachers, for students who had demonstrated that their problem might be neither lack of motivation nor inability but merely inefficiency in study methods. The authors of this article were selected to design and to teach such a course and to report the results. This article is an account of their work and its outcomes.

DESCRIPTION OF THE COURSE

Many sources of information on the topic of how to study are available.

The committee read books, articles, pamphlets, brochures, and even newspaper clippings. We drew heavily on our own years of teaching experience, which varied from five to twenty-five years. We interviewed parents, teachers, and members of the general public. Most important of all, we led the students to evaluate their own study habits. The inquiry form that was used for this purpose asked the students to interview a parent, a teacher, two other adults, a schoolmate, and "yourself," asking such questions as "What is knowledge?" and "How do you 'study hard'?" The students were also asked about particular study habits, such as the number of hours a day used for study and the use of a particular place and time for study.

GOALS

From our review of reading matter, interviews, and experience, we established the following set of goals which we wanted our "unsuccessful" students to achieve:

1. To reach an understanding of how human beings go through the process of learning.
2. To learn and to use correct and efficient methods of obtaining and keeping knowledge.

3. To learn how to plan and execute a study schedule.
4. To reach an understanding of the differences in peoples' ideas on such fundamental questions as: What is knowledge, wisdom, study?
5. To see errors in some study plans and methods.
6. To read a textbook effectively and efficiently.
7. To acquire the ability to develop brief but complete outlines or notes.
8. To use memory when necessary.
9. To understand the best ways of learning through the use of audio-visual aids.
10. To reach an understanding of the function and use of a library.
11. To use effective methods in the study of foreign languages.
12. To improve the ability to write clearly.
13. To overcome the fear of mathematics and to gain confidence in the use of this knowledge as a tool.

ACTIVITIES

Once the committee had agreed on these objectives, we turned our attention to designing the actual course of study and the activities to be included in order that the students might learn how to study. The activities included the use of demonstrations, interviews, reading, recordings, films, filmstrips, charts, models, diagrams, outlines, psychodrama, and memorizing techniques. The emphasis of the course was on purposeful practice in connection with the activities to a point of understanding and use. A basic textbook was used, "The Road to Wisdom" (an unpublished brochure). A teacher-made objective test, which attempted to measure the students' understandings of the goals of the course, served as the means of evaluation.

A "pilot" group of students was recommended by the teachers, headmaster, and guidance counselors. This group met during a forty-five-minute home-room period that was ordinarily used by the students for study. As a result of our experience with the pilot group, we revised our course and activities according to the needs demonstrated by the students in class and on the final examination.

Later, a second group of students made up of Sophomores, Juniors, and Seniors took the course. These students were not required to take the course, but, after being told about it, they elected it. They were not discipline cases or mentally inept students but were merely inefficient.

At the first meeting we pretested the second group with the test originally used as a final examination with the pilot group. Two students achieved A's and were to be released; however, one of these students elected to remain in the course. Two students who had failed the course in the pilot group were also included in this group. At the conclusion of the course, the students took the same test, using a new answer sheet. The difference between the pretest and the post-test raw scores was converted to conventional letter symbols, and these marks were sent to the headmaster to be added to the cumulative records of the students.

STATISTICAL EVALUATION OF THE RESULTS

There were nineteen students in the group who took the revised course.

The scores on the pretest ranged from 19 to 51, with a mean of 36.63. The scores on the final test ranged from 34 to 75, with a mean of 53.00. The difference between these means is 16.37. The significance of the difference in the means of related measures may be determined by the *t* test.¹ The value of *t* in this case is 8.5, and, for 18 degrees of freedom, the difference is significant at well below the 1 per cent level. Thus, the conclusion is that this group made definite growth in knowledge of how to study, since a difference of this magnitude would occur only rarely by chance.

A follow-up was made on the students at the end of the first marking period in the following autumn. A study of their marks, in comparison with a control group, was made to see if the course had had any influence on the general averages.

The control group included students matched as closely as possible with those of the "how to study" class. Consideration was given to intelligence quotients, average marks prior to the course (rating A = 4, B = 3, and so on), course of study elected, and sex.

It was possible in every case to match the courses exactly. The maximum variation in intelligence quotients was ten points, and the difference between the means was one point. It was impossible in two cases to find pupils of the same sex who matched well in other particulars, but

in the other seventeen cases the sex was the same.

When the *t* test was applied to estimate the significance of the difference between the means of intelligence-quotient distributions, the obtained value of *t* was about 0.73. Hence, the difference was not statistically significant.

Similarly, the difference between the means of the grade-point averages before the experiment began was tested and found to be not statistically significant. Thus, the groups were well matched.

At the conclusion of the first half of a semester after the completion of the course, the marks for that marking period were averaged for each of the pupils in the "how to study" group, and the same was done for the pupils in the control group. The mean of the "how to study" group was .49 of a grade point higher than it had been earlier. This gain was statistically significant at a level between 5 per cent and 2 per cent. However, the mean of the control group was also higher by .29 of a grade point. The level of significance of this gain was a little over 5 per cent. Hence, both groups seemed to be doing better work.

The difference between the means of the two groups at the end of the first quarter was .10 of a grade point. The use of the *t* statistic to test the significance of this difference showed that it was not statistically significant, the *t* value being only about .57. The difference in the grade-point averages of the two groups may, therefore, be a result of chance only.

¹ For the method of testing for significance of the differences, see Allen L. Edwards, *Experimental Design in Psychological Research*, pp. 276-78. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1950.

It may be that the attention given by the school to improved study habits had a general effect that produced improvement in the marks of students not in the special "how to study" group. This general effect would explain the improvement of the control group that reduced the difference between the groups to a magnitude not statistically significant.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A course was designed to teach students by their own activities that they could solve most of their study-habit problems. The teachers, after investigating the literature on the subject, built and used objective pretests and post-tests, based on carefully planned

activities. They evaluated the educational growth of the students and recorded the follow-up performances by the course "graduates." The evaluation by the test shows a decided improvement in the understandings of the concepts related to how to study and a gain in the average marks of those who took the course. When compared to the average marks of students who constituted a control group, the difference in the grade-point averages was not statistically significant. However, the control group had also improved appreciably, possibly as a result of the special attention that the school had been giving to improved study habits.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON GUIDANCE

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THE FOLLOWING REFERENCES are not unlike those in the articles of previous years. They have been selected for their contribution to knowledge of the guidance function in its numerous facets and for useful background information. Scientific studies dominate the list, but outstanding descriptions of practice and statements of opinion are also included.

Included in this issue as an additional aid for educational workers is a list of pertinent films supplied by Kenneth D. Norberg. Beginning in this issue, pertinent filmstrips will be included with listings of films.

DISTRIBUTION

527. ANDERSON, ROSE G. "Do Aptitudes Support Interests?" *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXII (September, 1953), 14-17.

A research yielding results which "should provide strong caution against assuming aptitudes from interests."

528. BARNETT, GORDON J.; STEWART, LAWRENCE H.; and SUPER, DONALD E. "Level of Occupational Interest: Dead-weight or Dynamism?" *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Summer, 1953), 193-208.

Summarizes research into level of occupational interest. Bibliography of twenty-five items.

529. BIRDIE, RALPH F., with chapters by WILBER L. LAYTON and BEN WILLERMAN. *After High School—What?* Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1954. Pp. xii+240.

Gives results of a study in connection with the Minnesota State-wide Testing Program, in which data obtained by a questionnaire given to 25,000 high-school Seniors revealed socioeconomic conditions, cultural status of the home, certain parental attitudes, and plans for the future. Considering such data in conjunction with scores on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination and rank in high-school class, the investigators were able to offer significant portrayals of students who planned to go to college and students who planned to go to work immediately after high school. The need for guidance was highlighted.

530. CARTER, ROBERT S. "Non-intellectual Variables Involved in Teachers' Marks," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVII (October, 1953), 81-95.

A study of marks given in beginning algebra to ascertain the influence of socioeconomic status, interest, and individual differences in the personalities of pupils.

531. GOLDMARK, JOSEPHINE CLARA. *Impatient Crusader*. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1953. Pp. xiv+218.

A biography of Florence Kelley, forceful champion of governmental action for the protection of women and children workers, the book contributes noteworthy understanding of the reconstruction of occupational life in the four decades from 1890 to 1930.

532. HOPE, JOHN, II. "The Employment of Negroes in the United States by Major Occupation and Industry," *Journal of Negro Education*, XXII (Summer, 1953), 307-21.

Census data show that the important shifts of Negro workers in the 1940's have brought wider vocational horizons to this minority group.

533. ODELL, CHARLES E. "School-Employment Service Cooperation," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXII (September, 1953), 9-13.

Reports follow-up studies in a number of states to evaluate the counseling and placement done by Employment Service offices. Preferred practices in the co-operation of the school with the Employment Service are delineated.

534. SEASHORE, HAROLD. "Tenth Grade Tests as Predictors of Twelfth Grade Scholarship and College Entrance Status," *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, I (Summer, 1954), 106-15.

Reports a study with the Differential Aptitude Tests which yielded results showing that the administration of these tests in Grade X is "valuable in counseling students with respect (a) to their expected general academic status, (b) their expected status within certain curricular groups, and (c) their expected status on two well-known senior-year measures of scholastic aptitude which are considered important by many colleges in evaluating applicants for admission."

535. SINICK, DANIEL, and HOPPOCK, ROBERT. "Research on the Teaching of Occupations, 1945-1951," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXII (November, 1953), 147-50.

Offers a summary and characterization of fourteen researches and raises additional questions for which research is needed.

536. TORRANCE, E. PAUL. "Some Practical Uses of a Knowledge of Self-concepts in Counseling and Guidance," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Spring, 1954), 120-27.

Reports data gained from college Freshmen in their estimate and re-estimate of ability. The implications for counseling techniques represent well-stated and practical suggestions.

537. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E., and TOWNSEND, AGATHA (editors). *Improving Transition from School to College: How Can School and College Best Cooperate?* New York: Harper & Bros., 1953. Pp. xviii+166.

Reports findings of a questionnaire study on the subject of college admission made by the Committee on School and College Relations of the Educational Records Bureau. Data on practices of colleges and high schools were gathered, as also were opinions and preferences on various issues in the performance of this function.

538. YOUNG, F. CHANDLER. "College Freshmen Judge Their Own Scholastic Promise," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXII (March, 1954), 399-403.

A carefully designed research showed that self-estimates of scholastic ability and self-predictions of scholastic achievement correlated to the extent of .61 and .71, respectively, with actual ability and actual achievement.

ADJUSTMENT¹

539. BECKHAM, ALBERT S. "The Incidence of Frustration in a Counseled as Com-

¹ See also Item 145 (Topp) in the list of selected references appearing in the March, 1954, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*; Item 290 (*Schools Help Prevent Delinquency*) in the list appearing in the April, 1954, issue of the same journal; and Items 513 (Buswell) and 518 (Kimball) in the list appearing in the May, 1954, issue of the *School Review*.

pared with an Uncounseled High-School Group," *Mental Hygiene*, XXXVII (July, 1953), 445-49.

A controlled experiment yielded quantitative data showing that counseling of failing pupils reduced their frustration.

540. DRESHER, RICHARD H. "Factors in Voluntary Drop-outs," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXII (January, 1954), 287-89.

Reports a study recently made in the Detroit public schools, which identified factors associated with retention and factors associated with early withdrawal from school.

541. FROE, OTIS D. "The Negative Concept in Discipline and Its Relation to Rapport in Counseling," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXIX (December, 1953), 470-77.

An article of opinion which states well the common conception of conflict between discipline and rapport and attributes the conflict to the negative character so often attached to discipline.

542. HATHAWAY, STARKE R., and MONACHESE, ELIO D. (editors). *Analysing and Predicting Juvenile Delinquency with the MMPI*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1953. Pp. viii+154.

Reports several researches which demonstrated positive value in the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory for the analysis and predicting of juvenile delinquency.

543. HECKER, STANLEY E. *Early School Leavers in Kentucky*. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Vol. XXV, No. 4. Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky, 1953. Pp. 80.

Presents data on the extent and the causes of early school leaving. Recommends detection and diagnosis of maladjustment in elementary-school years, a comprehensive

cumulative-record system, planned conferences of home-room teacher with pupil and parents, and other measures classifiable as guidance.

544. "Report of the Superintendent's Committee on Delinquency," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXVI (April, 1954), 5-40.

The committee expressed the belief that a proper approach to the problem of delinquency must be many-sided, but the "area of guidance" was the first one on which they offered recommendations.

545. SCHILLER, BELLE. "An Exploratory Study of Children's Reactions to Parents' Visits to Schools," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXVI (January, 1954), 17-29.

Reports results from a questionnaire answered by junior high school pupils. States that "the children's own evaluation of the practice shows confusion, for . . . although they say the visits have been effective, they are opposed to further visits." Concrete suggestions are given for modification of practice.

546. SHAFFER, E. EVAN, JR. "The Autobiography in Secondary School Counseling," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXII (March, 1954), 395-98.

Analysis and testing by various methods showed the autobiography to be a useful technique which might well be employed more extensively.

547. SHAPIRO, THERESA R. "What Scientists Look for in Their Jobs," *Scientific Monthly*, LXXVI (June, 1953), 335-40.

"A study of job satisfactions and dissatisfactions among scientists, carried out by the Bureau of Labor Statistics" and resulting in lists of reasons for remaining on the same job, for choosing new jobs, and for leaving jobs.

548. UNITED STATES CHILDREN'S BUREAU. *Police Services for Juveniles*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1954. Pp. viii+92.

A report of a conference sponsored by the Children's Bureau in co-operation with the International Association of Chiefs of Police, this bulletin sets forth the scope and quality of police activity in the handling of alleged delinquents and neglected children, in relations with other agencies, and prevention programs.

DISTRIBUTION AND ADJUSTMENT²

549. CAPLOW, THEODORE. *The Sociology of Work*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1954. Pp. x+330.

A treatise on occupational life, with chapters on such subjects as occupational status, vertical and horizontal mobility in occupations, vocational choice, and working conditions. Excellent chapter bibliographies.

550. COTTLE, WILLIAM C. "Some Common Elements in Counseling," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXII (September, 1953), 4-8.

The author finds a counseling relationship, communication, the counselor's knowledge of people, the client's change in feelings, and the structuring of the interview common to all systems of counseling.

551. CUONY, EDWARD R., and HOPPOCK, ROBERT. "Job Course Pays Off," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXII (March, 1954), 389-91.

Describes a controlled experiment with a course in job-finding and job orientation for high-school Seniors. In job satisfaction and in earnings, the experimental group excelled.

552. DANSKIN, D. G., and ROBINSON, F. P. "Differences in 'Degree of Lead' among Experienced Counselors," *Journal of*

² See also Item 157 (Walker) in the list of selected references appearing in the March, 1954, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*, also Items 481 (Bowman and others) and 505 (Jackson) in the list appearing in the May, 1954, issue of the *School Review*.

- Counseling Psychology*, I (Summer, 1954), 78-83.

Reports an analysis of 230 transcribed interviews carried on at five university counseling centers by 35 experienced counselors with 82 clients. The analysis showed the counselors to lie along a continuum in "degree of lead." Although there are real differences between some of these counselors, they do not fall into constellations as might be suggested by the directive-nondirective dichotomy.

553. GINZBERG, ELI, and BRAY, DOUGLAS W. *The Uneducated*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1953. Pp. xxvi+246.

Reports the inadequate development of our human resources for war and for peace, together with the high cost of such neglect. Implications for the functioning of educational institutions and processes are stated.

554. GRANT, CLAUDE W. "How Students Perceive the Counselor's Role," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXII (March, 1954), 386-88.

This carefully controlled canvass in nine schools showed that pupils look to counselors mainly for help with educational and vocational planning but turn to non-school people with personal and emotional problems.

555. *Guidance, Counseling, and Pupil Personnel*. Review of Educational Research, Vol. XXIV, No. 2. Washington: American Educational Research Association, 1954. Pp. 105-90.

A review of the literature appearing in the past three years, classified under the following titles: "Organization and Administration of Guidance in Elementary and Secondary Schools," "Organization and Administration of Student-Personnel Programs in College," "Selection and Training of School and College Personnel Workers," "The Counseling Function," "Group Guidance Approaches in Educational Institutions," "Group Therapy in Educational Institutions," "Use of Tests in Edu-

cational Personnel Programs," "Selecting and Using Vocational and Social Information," and "The Classroom Teacher's Role in Guidance."

556. "Guidance Number." *Education*, LXXIV (April, 1954), 459-518.

Devoted to a series of articles of opinion and practice on various aspects of guidance.

557. HUBBARD, ROBERT E., and FLESHER, WILLIAM R. "Intelligent Teachers and Intelligence Tests—Do They Agree?" *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXXII (May 13, 1953), 113-22, 139-40.

A mean coefficient of correlation of .72 was found between the intelligence quotients of elementary-school children as estimated by twenty-four teachers and as measured by group intelligence tests.

558. HUMPHREYS, J. ANTHONY, and TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. *Guidance Services*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1954. Pp. xviii+438.

Designed as a textbook for the basic or introductory course in guidance, this book presents a general treatment of guidance—its history, definition, and social and psychological foundations, its techniques and features, and its practical working in typical pupil problems.

559. JOHNSON, DAVIS G. "Effect of Vocational Counseling on Self-Knowledge," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Summer, 1953), 330-38.

Presents data from a research project showing that vocational counseling significantly increases both accuracy and certainty of self-knowledge.

560. JOHNSON, GRANVILLE B., JR. "Factors To Be Considered in the Interpretation of Intelligence-Test Scores," *Elementary School Journal*, LIV (November, 1953), 145-50.

A descriptive article stating clearly the external and internal factors in tests and test-taking which must be taken into account if scores are to be interpreted according to their worth.

561. JONES, ARTHUR J., and MILLER, LEONARD M. "The National Picture of Pupil Personnel and Guidance Services in 1953," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVIII (February, 1954), 105-59.

Data are presented showing, for the nation as a whole and for each state separately, numbers of counselors, amount of time available for counseling, status of certification requirements, staffing for guidance in elementary schools, and other pertinent facts about the status of guidance service.

562. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*. Vol. I, No. 1 (February, 1954). Columbus 10: Ohio State University (Room 2, Old Armory).

This new quarterly, launched in February, 1954, "serves as a primary publication medium for research on counseling theory and practice. [It] is designed to be of interest to psychologists and counselors in schools, colleges, and universities, public and private agencies, business and industry, and military agencies." Regular departments are "Research Notes" and "Book Reviews."

563. LITTLE, WILSON, and CHAPMAN, A. L. *Developmental Guidance in Secondary School*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. xii+324.

Mainly organized around typical problem areas of high-school pupils, this work is intended especially for teachers rather than counselors.

564. LLOYD-JONES, ESTHER, and SMITH, MARGARET RUTH (editors). *Student Personnel Work as Deeper Teaching*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1954. Pp. xii+362.

Chapters contributed by twenty-six well-known authors treat a wide range of personnel problems, primarily at the college level.

565. LONG, HELEN HALTER. "Pupil Direction Revitalizes the Homeroom Period," *Clearing House*, XXVIII (February, 1954), 323-26.

- A worth-while description of student leadership in the home room in one junior high school.
566. McCORKLE, DAVID B., and O'DEA, J. DAVID. "Some Problems of Homeroom Teachers," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXII (December, 1953), 206-8.
- Reports a survey of 268 secondary schools, shedding considerable light on the problems of making the home room an effective guidance instrument.
567. MCCREARY, WILLIAM H., and KITCH, DONALD E. *Now Hear Youth: A Report on the California Co-operative Study of School Drop-outs and Graduates*. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXII, No. 9. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1953. Pp. viii+70.
- Summarizes follow-up studies made in 73 secondary schools and involving 13,000 former students. Numerous indications of the need for guidance, as well as curriculum making, instruction, and administration, feature this report.
568. MCFARLAND, JOHN W. "Developing Effective Home Rooms," *School Review*, LXI (October, 1953), 400-405.
- An article of opinion which develops five major causes for the ineffectiveness of the home room, namely, lack of time, failure to understand the purposes of the home room, indifference of teachers, lack of trained personnel, and inadequate program planning. For each cause, remedies are suggested.
569. NATIONAL MANPOWER COUNCIL. *A Policy for Scientific and Professional Manpower*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1953. Pp. xxii+264.
- Presents specific recommendations for governmental agencies, educational institutions, and business organizations for achieving better development and utilization of talent. Numerous surveys are reported in support of the recommendations.
570. OLSHANSKY, SIMON S. "The Concept of Success in Our Culture," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXII (February, 1954), 355-56.
- A brief elucidation of a concept that greatly affects vocational decision and adjustment.
571. ORLEANS, MYRA. "Problems Peculiar to Parent Conferences," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, XVII (October, 1953), 3-7.
- An insightful statement which sets forth important general principles to be observed for making interviews with parents most productive.
572. ROBINSON, H. ALAN. "Job Satisfaction Researches of 1952," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXII (September, 1953), 22-25.
- Eleventh in the series of such summaries. Bibliography of twenty-one items.
573. ROTHNEY, JOHN W. M. *The High School Student: A Book of Cases*. New York: Dryden Press, Inc., 1953. Pp. xiv+272.
- Case records of twenty-seven boys and girls are presented in this book. They are classified as "The Ones in Trouble," "The Happy Ones," "The Physically Handicapped," and "The Quiet Ones." Discussion questions are provided for the purpose of stimulating teachers in training to growth in the capacity to understand pupils.
574. "Social Class Structure and American Education," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXIII (Summer and Fall, 1953), 149-338.
- A series of articles organized under "The Nature of Social Classes: Theory and Empirical Studies" and "The Function of Public Education in Relation to Social Stratification." Meanings for guidance are especially brought out by showing the bearing of social class on school attendance, on educational and occupational aspiration, and on standing in intelligence tests. The special issue is concluded by a lengthy critique evaluating each of the contributed

articles and an annotated bibliography of sixty-nine items on social class and education.

575. SPINELLI, EMILY. "The Short Contact Case," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, XVII (October, 1953), 13-24.

A treatment which gathered together, from various sources, the limited thinking about the short contact interview, which is by far the most prevalent kind of interview held today in schools and colleges. Bibliography of twenty-nine items.

576. TYLER, LEONA E. *The Work of the Counselor*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1953. Pp. xii+324.

This book is organized for the most part with chapters on the several tools of the counselor—the interview, pupil records, tests, and occupational information. A final chapter on evaluation studies presents an analysis of many researches which have measured guidance.

577. VITELES, MORRIS S. *Motivation and Morale in Industry*. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. xvi+510.

Summarizes, integrates, and interprets the many research reports and statements of theory in this field. Excellent bibliographies. This work is well designed to contribute richly to the counselor's understanding of occupational life.

FILMS AND FILMSTRIPS³

The following list of selected instructional motion pictures and filmstrips is limited to recent releases not previously cited in this journal. All listed motion pictures are 16mm sound pictures unless otherwise indicated.

FILMS

578. *Role-playing in Guidance*. 14 minutes, black and white. Los Angeles, Cali-

³ See also Item 656 (*Responsibility*) in the list of selected films appearing in the September, 1953, issue of the *School Review*.

foria: Educational Film Sales Department, University Extension, University of California, 1953.

This demonstration of role-playing in guidance is based on an actual case, previously reported by Robert B. Haas in Psychodrama Monograph No. 24, *Action Counseling, A Psychodramatic Approach*. The illustrated procedure is applied to a young boy with a personal problem.

ENCYCLOPAEDIA BRITANNICA FILMS INC.,
WILMETTE, ILLINOIS

579. *Getting a Job*. 16 minutes, black and white. 1954.

Describes the various agencies and sources of information which can be helpful in obtaining a job. Also deals with the procedures by which the job-seeker actually gains employment.

580. *Planning Your Career*. 16 minutes, black and white. 1954.

This vocational-guidance film, planned for use at the high-school level, deals with the general problem of appraising one's own capacities in relation to the potentialities of various possible occupations.

MCGRAW-HILL BOOK CO., INC., TEXT FILMS,
NEW YORK

581. *Counseling Adolescents*. Black and white, three films with follow-up filmstrips. 1954. This series of films is to be used as correlated material with the textbook *Counseling Adolescents* by Edmund Griffith Williamson (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950).

A Counselor's Day. 12 minutes. Follows a counselor through a typical day's work. This counselor carries a one-sixth teaching load. The remainder of his busy day is given mainly to interviews with teachers and students. Illustrates the methods by which he selects cases for special study and shows how he actually works to help students achieve their personal goals.

Using Analytical Tools. 15 minutes. The case of an individual student, a typical

high-school boy, is used to illustrate the use of referral techniques, cumulative records, tests, anecdotal records, interviews, time-distribution forms, and autobiographies.

Diagnosis and Planning Adjustments in Counseling. 18 minutes. Using the same case and the information accumulated by the techniques shown in *Using Analytical Tools*, this film proceeds with diagnosis and interview techniques employed to resolve the problem. Interviews illustrating the development of the case include those involving the classroom teacher and the boy; the counselor and the boy; the counselor, the mother, and the boy; and a concluding interview between the counselor and the boy.

582. *Psychology for Living.* Black and white, five films with follow-up filmstrips. 1954. This series, designed for high-school and first-year college students, is to be used as correlated material with the textbook *Psychology for Living* by Herbert Sorenson and Marguerite Malm (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948).

Emotional Maturity. Surveys patterns of emotional behavior. Depicts the efforts of a high-school girl to make a rational decision concerning a personal problem, using her own prior experience and also what she has learned about emotions.

Facing Reality. Portrays the meaning of defense mechanisms by showing how an adolescent uses negative and extravagant behavior to cover up his feelings of inadequacy and frustration. A sympathetic teacher demonstrates a constructive approach to the problem.

Habit Patterns. A high-school girl learns how to go about changing a set of unsatisfactory habits which have led her into difficulties.

Heredity and Family Environment. Discusses physical, mental, and emotional factors as largely inherited tendencies and the controlling effects of the family environment.

Successful Scholarship. Suggests measures by which a high-school student can organize his time and other conditions for most effective study.

583. *Discussion Problems in Group Living.* Black and white. New York: Young America Films, Inc., 1951-54.

A series of motion pictures based on typical problems arising out of the everyday behavior of young adolescents. Each film illustrates a common pattern, such as the over-aggressive behavior of the bully, and poses the problem in terms suitable for discussion by teen-agers. The films, intended to provoke thoughtful discussion, do not pretend to offer ready-made solutions. Titles of the films are *The Bully*, 11 minutes; *Cheating*, 11 minutes; *The Good Loser*, 13 minutes; *The Griper*, 11 minutes; *The Other Fellow's Feelings*, 8 minutes; *Other People's Property*, 10 minutes; *The Outsider*, 10 minutes; *The Procrastinator*, 10 minutes; and *The Show-Off*, 11 minutes.

FILMSTRIPS

584. *Nature of a Job.* 50 frames, silent, black and white. Detroit: Wayne University, 1953.

Designed for use with high-school students, this filmstrip deals with the general problem of occupational choice, and with factors that control growth in a job. Emphasizes the importance of viewing one's chosen work from a broad perspective, with an eye toward the possibilities of advancement.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION, *School Athletics: Problems and Policies*. Washington 6: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1954. Pp. x+116. \$1.00.

School Athletics: Problems and Policies is the result of three years of investigation and deliberation by the Educational Policies Commission. It deals with the somewhat controversial subject of the place of competitive sport in the programs of elementary and secondary schools. It summarizes the standards advocated by the accrediting associations and the various national bodies representing coaches, athletic administrators, physical educators, and school principals.

The report emphasizes the need for a reconstruction of athletic programs to make them "a potential educative force of great power" (p. 4). It points out the undesirable effects of bad athletic practices and of emphasis on false values. It describes in some detail the types of programs considered suitable and unsuitable at different age levels. In spite of the fact that many will disagree with some of its recommendations, this report covers so much ground so briefly and so well that it should be "must" reading for school administrators and boards of education as well as for physical educators and athletic coaches.

In order to be of maximum educational value, the Commission feels, all "athletic activities should be conducted as part of physical education under the direction of teachers

with special preparation in the field" (p. 82) and, further, "the core of the program at all levels should be the athletic instruction and play for all pupils in regular classes in physical education" (p. 82).

These statements may alarm those persons among high-school coaches and directors who fail to recognize varsity athletic competition as an integral phase of the overall physical-education program. Unfortunately there has developed in certain areas a foolish antagonism between some athletic coaches and administrators and those responsible for the intramurals and the class work in physical education. The philosophy and the fundamental objectives of all these persons should be the same, and a central administration is highly desirable in order to assure proper emphases and equitable allotment of staff, equipment, and facilities.

At the elementary-school level, body-contact sports and high-pressure competition are considered out of place. Athletic participation at this stage should be purely for the fun of playing. Informal activities between schools, such as "play days" and "sport days," are, however, considered valuable adjuncts of the program.

Such body-contact sports as boxing, ice hockey, and tackle football are not recommended for junior high school pupils, nor are sports requiring great strength and endurance. At this level, intramural and informal types of extramural activities should be emphasized, and intensive forms of varsity interscholastics avoided. Exploitation of junior high school youngsters by outside agencies and individuals should be combated by

parents and by school authorities. The emphasis at this level should be placed primarily upon the development of a wide variety of sports skills for all. Some opportunity should be provided for boys and girls to play together in a number of sports.

At the senior high school level, athletic opportunities for all pupils, both boys and girls, should be continued through physical-education classes and through intramural and extramural competition. It is the responsibility of the school administration to make liberal provision for physical facilities and skilled supervision so that all phases of the program, including varsity athletics, can be adequately administered. The broadest possible program should be provided in order to meet the needs and interests of all. In all sports competition it is especially important that students compete with their equals in maturity, physical development, and skill.

An organized program of interscholastic competition at the senior high school level is needed to provide competition for those with special skills in sports. In order to attain maximum educational values from the varsity program, such standards as the following are advocated by the Commission:

1. The program should be administered as an integral part of the school's educational program for physical education.
2. The emphasis should be on fun, physical development, skill and strategy, social experience and good sportsmanship.
3. High-pressure competition to the extent of overemphasis on the importance of winning should be avoided.
4. Varsity athletes should not be treated as a privileged class.
5. Coaches should be trained educators in the field of physical education.
6. Reasonable safety measures should be taken to prevent injuries.
7. Contests should be played on school or public property.
8. Girls should not participate in body-contact sports.
9. Competitive boxing should not be permitted.
10. Postseason championship tournaments and games are undesirable.

11. The board of education should provide financial support in order to eliminate dependence on gate receipts.
12. "State high-school athletic associations should function under the authority of, and within a framework of policies established by, the legally constituted educational agency of the state government" (p. 83).

Most of the standards for interscholastic competition which the commission advocates will be readily accepted by everyone, but there may be considerable objection to the last three items listed above. High-school conferences and state associations will raise objections to the wholesale banning of post-season championship tournaments and games. They will maintain that such events, when properly conducted, contribute to the educational objectives of the program. They will insist that, by placing proper limitations on playing seasons and avoiding a great number of games in a short period, the evils of tournament play can be avoided. It cannot be denied, however, that the hysteria which frequently accompanies such events as state basketball finals may seriously disrupt the normal life and work of a school and community.

At present, most interscholastic programs are wholly or largely supported by gate receipts. The report advocates financial support by school funds. Teachers in other areas will naturally object if their budgets are cut in order to free funds for support of athletics. This reviewer sees nothing wrong in charging the public to see athletic contests unless the financial considerations rather than the welfare of the athletes are allowed to determine athletic scheduling policies. A possible solution of this perplexing problem may be to have all gate receipts go to the general fund of the school and to operate the athletic program on a budget appropriation, as is the practice in many small colleges. Even this practice, however, will not prevent abuse unless the athletic director is given a free rein to organize and conduct the program which is best for the participants.

State high-school athletic associations should rightly be fearful of too close a tie-up with the state government unless adequate safeguards are provided to prevent sports from becoming a political football. There have been many examples of political influence operating to the detriment of high-school and college athletics. The National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations and most of the state associations have done fine work in the past as independent bodies. If the state department of education can assist them in attaining educational objectives, it is highly desirable, but political interference should be avoided.

T. NELSON METCALF

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JENNIE WAUGH CALLAHAN, *Television in School, College, and Community*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. xviii+340. \$4.75.

If a tremendous panoramic camera had been focused on the entire educational television scene in the United States as it existed in 1953, and every single detail, from exterior superficialities to the detail of interior operation, had been recorded on film, the resulting photograph would reveal the complete documentation of 1953 educational TV in the United States that has been incorporated in the content of the book, *Television in School, College, and Community*.

In her introductory acknowledgment, Jennie Waugh Callahan, of Hunter College of the City of New York, describes how the factual materials of her book grew largely out of "a first 10,000-mile trip in 1951" (the implications are that there were added trips). With meticulous detail, Mrs. Callahan includes account after account of educational television accomplishments from east to west and north to south in public schools, colleges, and universities and in joint public school, community, and college television activities.

The book begins with a current (1953) analysis of progress in the establishment of educational television stations throughout the country. For the student, planner, or producer, the opportunity to examine progress on all fronts is an objective opportunity to compare one's own progress in television planning with the progress of other communities.

Part II deals objectively and convincingly with the role of educational television as it seeks its true place among traditional operational plans of the commercial broadcaster. It points to the impossibility of any present or future reconciliation between the social goals of educational television per se and the understandable budget, profit, and accounting goals of commercial television broadcasters.

Brief but clear-cut descriptions are given of community programs which seek general cultural improvement and social understanding through television—means which will lead toward better living and the accomplishment of additional socially desirable goals within American adult groups, including clubs, organizations, fraternities, and social groups organized around cores of community activity and progress.

A summary of public school television programs, both for after-school listening and in-school viewing, includes specific reference to well-conceived televised educational programs which realistically observe tasks of curriculum planning, implementation of content through appropriate organization of audio-visual techniques to the television medium, and awareness of some of the inherent and continuing problems of television. Some of these problems are the difficulty in adjusting the type and content of programs to individual differences; pupil-teacher planning; and inconsistencies in rate of progress through planned curriculum areas by individual classes from school to school, or from classroom to classroom, within the telecast area.

The section on college and university

adult-education "telecourses" puts forth a definitive description of the role of television in carrying on off-campus adult-education courses, which vary between the extremes of credit courses and general cultural participation experiences.

By the time the reader has proceeded to page 184, he has a feeling which might be compared to that of George Whitefield, the Methodist evangelist, during the period of the Great Awakening. While the goal has been liberalized today, educational television seems to be the present-day opportunity for a wide-scale, social-cultural "great awakening."

Although the reader will admire the tremendous strides that have been made in investigating the social role of this great new communication opportunity, television, he must pause and reflect objectively upon what remains to be done.

In what areas can the most useful social accomplishments be gained through mass use of educational television? Analysis of some of the current programs cannot help but give the viewer the feeling which Stephen Leacock held for his hero who "jumped on his horse and rode in all directions." What is the most economical role for educational television in terms of accomplishing the greatest social usefulness? Where are the natural strengths and, more important, the limitations of television in terms of accomplishment in the implementation of the informal as well as the formally structured objectives of education?

In the opinion of the reviewer, this book will be one of the classics of television literature. It is truly a sourcebook. I am sure it will take its place as the best and most conclusively written documentation of the "year of decision" referred to in June, 1953, by Paul A. Walker, the chairman of the Federal Communication Commission, as "the year which will decide education's stake in educational television in the United States."

WALTER A. WITTICH

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CARLETON WASHBURNE, *The World's Good: Education for World-Mindedness*. New York 36: John Day Co., 1954. Pp. xiv+302. \$4.00.

At a time when teachers are confused about their responsibility for educating today's children in a broad understanding about the world in which they live, Carleton Washburne's book, *The World's Good*, is most welcome. In clear, simple language, the author sets forth, not only what that responsibility is, but also how teachers at all grade levels can provide experiences which will help children and youth grow up with the ability and the will to feel, to think, and to act in terms of one interdependent world-society.

The theme of the book is, "In the world's good is your own, and in yours the world's." In the first part of the book, Washburne shows how impossible it is to have one without the other. In each chapter he shows how teachers in the classroom help children develop "a world-wide social consciousness." While he recognizes the responsibility of the school to meet the basic emotional needs of children for self-expression and security, it is primarily with meeting the basic need for social integration that this book provides help.

Education for world-mindedness starts with the individual and his need to identify his own well-being with the well-being of others. Through many concrete examples Washburne shows how children learn to cooperate, to share responsibility, and to consider the welfare of others through socializing experiences in the classroom. He warns, however, that identification with a small group may result in conflict with other groups unless children recognize the common unity of man and the interdependence of all groups and all nations. Teachers will find help in this book in how to eliminate prejudice by building constructive attitudes; how to provide a democratic classroom environment, and how to develop an understanding of the interdependence of all groups by bringing out (1) the common humanity among

cultures, (2) the value of differences, and (3) the interdependence of people. Washburne believes, not only that the responsibility of the schools is to provide experiences, direct and vicarious, by which children gain these understandings, but that the teacher must guide the children to an understanding of the meaning behind the experiences. Separate chapters on "Our Common Humanity," "The Value and Understanding of Differences," "Ideological Conflict," and "War" give teachers suggestions on what should be taught and on ways to organize classrooms to provide rich experiences for children.

In the second part of the book, Washburne provides much factual material about the United Nations and its specialized agencies, with emphasis on the human element—the work done by this organization and its agencies throughout the world in increasing the well-being of people, promoting social progress, and protecting human rights and the dignity and worth of human beings. The author makes constant reference throughout this section to materials which teachers will find useful in the classroom.

Teachers who are afraid to teach about conflicting ideologies and the United Nations because of community pressures will find many suggestions in this book for pointing out to laymen the shortsightedness of an educational program which does not prepare children to live in a world which has become increasingly interdependent. The security of our nation depends upon citizens who are enlightened about world affairs and who have learned to analyze issues, examine evidence, evaluate points of view, and reach sound conclusions. Teachers who have already accepted this responsibility will find Washburne's book rich with suggestions of how they can do an even better job than they are now doing in developing social awareness and world-mindedness. Washburne states:

Our young people must grow up in the faith of the democratic ideals so often enunciated by Jefferson: "Here we shall follow truth wherever it may lead, nor fear to tolerate error so long as reason is free to combat it." But they must go

farther—they must realize that none of us has all the truth, that all of us are groping for it. Even those who are fighting hardest against the things we believe to be true may have some elements of truth that we have not discovered. In our thinking we must preserve an open and inquiring mind, an ability to see things through the eyes of our opponents, a skill in understanding the motives and thoughts of those whom we oppose. Yet we must *act* in the light of the best knowledge and reason available to us at the moment. This combination can be achieved through practice in a democratic type of school from the earliest grades up into adult life [p. 92].

In *The World's Good*, Washburne is saying what has been said in many other publications on the teaching of international understanding, but he says it with a directness which teachers can understand and apply. If the future of democracy and even the defense of the United States rest upon transmitting to the children and youth in our schools the ideals and values inherent in democracy and in helping them to grow as responsible citizens, able to think rationally about world problems, then schools dare not neglect the issues Washburne presents. In his book, teachers, parents, and youth leaders will find much to help them assume the responsibility which is rightfully theirs.

LAVONE A. HANNA

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LESTER A. KIRKENDALL and FRANKLIN R. ZERAN, *Student Councils in Action*. New York 16: Chartwell House, Inc. (280 Madison Avenue), 1953. Pp. viii+240.

The literature on student councils is plentiful, and much of it is not well related to philosophic concepts. It is, therefore, a welcome event when two experienced authors pool their wisdom to produce a new volume which is noteworthy both for brevity and insight.

Both the Foreword by Gerald M. Van Pool, of the National Association of Student Councils, and the Preface by the authors

make the promise that the writing will be solidly based on a philosophy of democratic living. The promise is not an idle one, for the book opens with a strong statement of philosophy of democratic education and moves swiftly to an even stronger outline of basic concepts of student-participation programs. On these two foundation stones rests the authors' conception of what a truly effective student council should be. It becomes crystal-clear which practices are effective or ineffective, which viewpoints of teachers and principals are insightful or superficial. Examples are numerous of both good and bad practices and viewpoints, from reports obtained from some eighty high schools and a few colleges. Each chapter is a combination of basic statement and example.

Out of the basic statement in the first two chapters grows the thesis that *student-faculty participation* in school affairs is what we are striving for whenever we try to make a student council effective in the democratic sense. This one thesis, in a sense, sums up the entire book. It means that such ideas as "student self-government" fall short of the goal; it demands that we set up a situation "in which both pupils and faculty may have actual experience in living in a community organized on democratic principles" (p. 17).

This closely reasoned book is hard to summarize, but here are some of the other important ideas that it develops. Student-participation is as important a part of the curriculum as any other activity of the school. The form and machinery of the student council, while important, deserve less attention than the actual work of the council; in fact, the work of the council may well determine the form of its organization. Enforcement of discipline is perhaps the least desirable objective for a student council. Every activity of the council can be regarded merely as something to keep students busy or as a real at-

tack on a vital school problem, designed to challenge the thinking and deepen the understandings of students. Evaluation of the council's work, while difficult, can be accomplished through a series of questions which focus on its contributions to the life of the school.

In the chapter on interrelations of faculty, administration, and students, the human frailties of all three of these groups are taken into consideration: "the temptation to strive for prestige and power, to yield to the pressure of the immediate, or to forget large ends in the irritations of the moment" (p. 135). But, at the same time, faith in human nature stands out above this recognition of frailties.

The last two chapters, equally clear and full of understanding, consider the role of the faculty adviser and the effect of the council on the life of the school. Here are some of the most significant activities to which school people can devote their time. Why the activities of student councils are so significant and how to make them most effective are the two questions which this book answers with an unusual degree of success.

The Appendix is packed with practical aids: an article on the importance of student government, a citizenship test, a suggested procedure for elections, several constitutions of actual councils, information on the National Association of Student Councils, and a good list of recent articles on student-participation activities.

If the reader of this review has any connection now with a student council, he should obtain a copy of *Student Councils in Action*, for a few words do not give an adequate impression of the fundamental train of thought which makes this little book distinctive in its field.

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